

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Volume LVII

\*

OCTOBER 1949

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Number 8

## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### WORK EXPERIENCE THROUGH WORK CAMPS

IN THESE columns of the May-June, 1949, number of the *School Review*, Warren C. Seyfert asked the advocates of "general education" for a straightforward, operational definition of the phrase. However it may ultimately be defined and implemented, "general education" can hardly escape an honest consideration of the place of work experience for American youth in our educational pattern. We talk about the problems of youth; we plead for a longer school term; we are concerned with the job placement of our graduates. Education for "life adjustment" has become, in recent years, a major concern of the United States Office of Education. Schools are tacking courses in home and family living onto already overloaded programs. But work experience in real situations, outside the too artificial school setting, is an educational tool that few educators have learned to use.

The American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, in its publication *Youth and the Future*, holds that work offers a focus for a new organization of life-habits. The youth who works develops a new standard for personal behavior; he has to master skills in the use and care of equipment; he acquires the idea of giving an honest day's work; and he learns the significance of being punctual.

One of the most effective means of providing work experience which is real, not "made," is the work camp. Work camps originated in Europe and were introduced into the United States by the American Friends Service Committee in the summer of 1934. The early camps were for college men and women. Later the Associated Junior Work Camps, Incorporated, of New York, and the American Friends Service Committee pioneered in high-school work camps.

At present, thirty-three youth-serv-

ice organizations are listed in the catalogue which is published by the Commission on Youth Work Service Projects. This commission is composed primarily of church-related organizations, and it is administered through the United Christian Youth Movement. In their 1949 catalogue seven projects are listed for high-school youths. One of these projects is co-sponsored by the American Friends Service Committee and the Evangelical and Reformed Church. The Friends sponsor two others; the Unitarian Service Committee is sponsor for three; and the Brethren Service Commission is sponsor for one. Usually these camps run for eight weeks. The cost to campers is about \$125, plus transportation to and from the camp. The age range is from fourteen to nineteen years.

The writer first became interested in work camps as a means for implementing a work-experience program when he joined the staff of the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago. During the summer of 1946, the Laboratory School co-sponsored two of several work camps with the American Friends Service Committee. The traveling staff member of two voluntary work camps in southeastern Kentucky was Seth P. Phelps, of the Laboratory School faculty. Since that time Mr. Phelps has served as work camp counselor in three other camps, has recorded his impressions of the camps in articles in the *School Review*,<sup>1</sup> and has been a source of inspiration and information to many teach-

ers, including the writer. The exposition which follows is based on his findings (as yet unpublished) during his association with the American Friends camps.

To those who are genuinely concerned with the problems of young people, most of the answers to questionnaires filled out by a group of Seth Phelps's young work-campers are heartening. Each camper gave a multiple response to the question: "Why did you come to work camp?" Fifty-seven per cent said they wanted to help other people. In the tabulation of the answers, this reason ranked highest, with a total of 27 per cent of all the responses. Following are excerpts from some of the replies:

I saw people living in squalor and wanted to help.

I couldn't stand being idle when there was so much to be done elsewhere—or merely talking about the need.

To spend a summer doing a worth-while job helping people less fortunate than myself.

What high-school staff could help but feel proud of these idealistic expressions. Better still was hearing these young folk discussing their problems near the end of camp and saying: "Money is not enough; we have really helped these people achieve what they had neither the money nor the manpower to do for themselves. We did something that counts more than money!"

<sup>1</sup> Seth P. Phelps, "Students' Opinions of Work Camps," *School Review*, LV (April, 1947), 214-21; "A Community Looks at a High-School Work Camp," *School Review*, LVI (April, 1948), 202-9.

Space does not permit listing of all the reasons given for coming to work camp, but, in order of frequency, the other reasons were classified as follows:

To share in co-operative group living—29 per cent

To have work experience—29 per cent

To attain personal growth—42 per cent

To meet new people—33 per cent

To have a new experience—9 per cent

Because of parental insistence—9 per cent.

[Usually those who came because of parental insistence became enthusiastic about work camp. Without exception, they repeated the experience voluntarily.]

To keep out of trouble—2 per cent. [These young people became valuable campers.]

A second question asked was: "Did the hard physical work have personal benefits?" Ninety-five per cent of the youngsters replied "Yes." Five per cent were doubtful, saying, in effect:

I don't know whether it was the work itself, or whether it was working with others.

Some answers indicated a deeper appreciation for the laboring man. One girl said:

I always thought fences were just there. After digging postholes and helping build this fence around the schoolyard, I shall always think of the hard work that went into making it.

Others felt better prepared for, and more confident about, the years ahead of them, or felt stronger physically, and so on. To quote one camper:

Very important is the ability to make up one's mind to do something, no matter how unpleasant the task may be. Although I could accept responsibility before I came to

work camp, it was there that I learned to accept it and *follow it through*. I learned how to help and be helped, and how to mix work and play.

A third question was: "What helped you most in adjusting to camp life?" Sixty per cent of the replies indicated that democratic group living was the most helpful. Willingness to share and help plan the daily program showed marked acceptance by the youngsters of the idea of allocated responsibility. Of these replies, 20 per cent indicated that this allocation was a personal challenge—if others could do it, they could too. Another 20 per cent indicated that previous experience helped them to adjust to camp life. One replied:

Most important, I think, is the ability to get along with all kinds of people, even though their backgrounds and interests aren't the same as mine.

Another question was: "Have you ever done hard work before?" Thirty-eight per cent had done hard work. Twenty-nine per cent had done "a little." The remaining 33 per cent had done no hard work previously. While some of the campers quickly became surprisingly adept with hand tools, there were some who just were not "cut out" for hard work. But even these youngsters tried hard and apparently gained many insights and appreciations which they had lacked before the camp experience.

To the question, "Did your hard work here change your outlook on life?" 90 per cent said their outlook on life had broadened. Two examples:

I think it has made me more tolerant of personal traits which I dislike in others. Having to live and work so closely with people I would otherwise know only superficially has made me realize the importance of getting along with others. If you look for good in others you find it more than compensates for their bad habits. I also became more thoughtful of things I did that might bother others, and tried to change.

Of great help to me . . . is the ability to sit down and think something through. Before, I never had the patience to do this, but always gave up half-way through. . . . Work camp has taught me to use my head to its best advantage.

One of the Kentucky camp groups cultivated, harvested, and canned six and one-half tons of vegetables, crated them, and packed them on a freight car to start them on their way to Austria. This was a camp sponsored by the American Friends Service Committee, the Hazel Green Academy, and the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. Listen to what one girl, who went because of parental insistence, had to say about her experience:

Our work at Hazel Green, Kentucky, was not easy, but once we were toughened and could stand hours of work in the burning sun, we worked much faster. We soon undertook the long task of picking and canning the beans. We would pick about a bushel basketful from each row. When we filled all the baskets, we would begin the long walk back to the cannery with the baskets of beans on our shoulders.

Then began the long, involved method of canning. The small cannery had been built for the people of the community [by the staff of the Hazel Green Academy] and was equipped with a huge blanching tank, a large cutting and preparation table, an ex-

haust tank, and two huge pressure cookers. The tremendous steam boiler had once been used on a ship and now roared with fire to cook "our" food for Europe.

We had to snap each bean and wash it, then blanch it in the boiling water of the great tank, then put the beans into cans, put them through the exhaust tank at tremendous heat, seal the cans, and pressure-cook them.

This process took a long time and sometimes we grew discouraged after we had worked from seven o'clock to five-thirty, first under the blazing sun and then at the cannery that was always filled with steam, and hot water just waiting to shoot from its containers and leave painful burns. But, as we watched our pile of cans of beans, carrots, and finally sauerkraut grow and grow until there was no more room to store them in the shed, our hearts were lightened and we worked with renewed vigor. We had to make crates and bind them with steel bands and stencil the address, the contents and weight, and the red and black star of the American Friends Service Committee, on their bulging sides.

. . . At the end of two glorious months we went home with a feeling of having accomplished something. I felt as if I were a completely different person from the sullen girl who had first ridden reluctantly into camp. It is impossible for me to describe the differences I felt in myself. The morning meditations, which I had looked on so scornfully at first, were now very real and wonderful to me. . . . In this paper I have merely skimmed over the top of those work- and fun-filled days. I wish I had more time to tell about the people and the work, about the little things we did each day that meant so much to us.

These camps help young people develop outgoing concerns for the people in needy areas. They provide rich, firsthand, social-science experiences; they encompass the many values inherent in group living; they offer an



opportunity to get deep satisfactions from doing something for others; they foster the development of a sound philosophy of life. As a matter of fact, because campers of various races, creeds, or colors come to work, worship, and play together, these camps are world brotherhood in action.

*Leadership.*—Anything written about work camps would not be complete without comments on the importance of camp leadership. The best leaders, like the best teachers, have had a real zest for their job and much faith in young people. They usually volunteer for the jobs at the American Friends Service Committee work camps because they are imbued with the ideal of helping others to help themselves.

Good leadership sets the tone of the camps. Leaders work hard to see that "their kids" do not get too much sun, do not overdo. In many other ways, the leaders serve as proxies for parents. Leaders help campers set up committees and programs that enable the young people to feel that the camps are theirs, as they are in a very real sense. The camps are firsthand testing grounds for future world citizens; they afford opportunities to develop social sensitivity through experiences and situations which would be almost impossible to duplicate in classrooms.

*What might be.*—Kenneth Holland and George L. Bickel, deeply concerned with the problems of youth, had the courage to dream of a program to help youth across our nation.

They visualized thousands of separate camps scattered all around the country, housing small groups of high-school boys and girls. This was what they imagined:

For eight weeks the campers spent from five to seven hours a day in voluntary work on projects of community benefit. Old barns, vacant and dilapidated buildings, deserted shacks, were transformed into useful, attractive community centers. Roads and paths and fences were built, mile upon mile. Community services received free aid. Thousands of underprivileged children were given care, furnished with food, afforded brief vacations in the country. . . . Young campers spent some 300 million boy- and girl-hours of hard, earnest labor. . . .

But labor was not the whole life of the camps. A million and a half boys and girls looked at the United States in a new way. Into factories, mines, homes, and farms they swarmed on special trips, and there they saw with their own eyes how Americans work and live. . . . In the evenings they sat around campfires and discussed what they had done and seen during the day. Large and small issues were pondered, songs were sung, a new kind of comradeship was formed. . . .

Back to their homes they went at last—a million and a half boys and girls who were healthier, who knew more about living and working conditions, who had more realistic experience in work and in ways of gaining a livelihood, and who had grasped an understanding of how to get on with one another more firmly than any large group of high school pupils in the history of the United States.\*

Visionary? Perhaps. Something for us to work toward? Yes. Far off as it

\* Kenneth Holland and George L. Bickel, *Work Camps for High School Youth*, pp. 3-4. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

may seem, this dream is quite within the realm of the possible. Will it become the part of citizenship to plan for the deepest needs of youth regardless of economic circumstance? The question looms large. America's answer has yet to be given.

Educators who want to help supply the answer will find that any community can locate areas of need where a work camp can be established. Here are some possibilities:

Build, repair, and paint isolated rural schools.

Build playgrounds and help provide recreation leadership.

Help build roads.

Undertake forestry conservation in timbered sections.

Help with the construction, repair, and maintenance at "boarding schools" in mountain areas.

Help tenant farmers with housing projects.

Engage in labor on farms and in rural social service.

Work in settlement camps.

There is plenty of opportunity. Work experience for youth need not be merely talked about. It is yours for the asking, in your own community.

#### CONTINUING THE FIGHT FOR CIVIL RIGHTS

**I**F AMMUNITION is needed in the fight for civil rights, it is available in two recent pamphlets issued by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith and by the American Council on Education. Both will interest educators and laymen who are concerned with the problems of intercultural relations, religious and racial discrimi-

nation, academic freedom, and minority rights.

Edward J. Sparling, founder and first president of Roosevelt College in Chicago, is the author of the B'nai B'rith Freedom Pamphlet, *Civil Rights: Barometer of Democracy*. In addition to a rather thorough review of the theory of civil rights, Dr. Sparling provides a number of stirring "case histories" of efforts to abrogate these rights. Inveighing against the Mundt-Nixon bill introduced into the Eightieth Congress, for example, Dr. Sparling writes:

This bill is also the result of the hysteria which aims to suppress free expression. It looks as if the nation-wide reaction against this bill has temporarily shelved it although a victory in a skirmish does not mean the battle is really won. This bill is a good example of an attempt to write a limit to freedom. The terms of the bill expose all freedom to the possibility of destruction.

Finally, the case of John C. Virden points up the ludicrous proportions which repression can easily assume. Conservative Republican Congressman Fred L. Crawford denounced conservative industrialist Virden (a special assistant to the Secretary of Commerce) because Virden's disowned daughter works for *Tass*, the Soviet News Agency. As the *Nation* rightly pointed out: "The trouble with witch-hunting, as the good citizens of Salem discovered long ago, is that eventually the best people, the original hunters of the witches, come under suspicion themselves. It becomes impossible, in the final stage, to tell witch is witch—we are waiting for the next sequence, when it will be discovered that Representative Crawford has a third cousin who has a friend whose grandson has been observed reading the *Daily Worker*."

Dr. Sparling concludes what is, in effect, a philippic against the rising

threats to the Four Freedoms, with some strong words to timid educators:

Modern history has taught us that although change is inevitable, change for the better is not. There is no reason to believe that we will automatically have more civil rights tomorrow than we have today. Historical process will be neutral; it is up to us.

Speaking as a citizen and as an educator, I must confess that the historical role of the school in the building of the American social order has not exactly been a record of daring. . . .

Since 1929 it has been encouraging to note a changed attitude. Some school men show vigorous signs of dissatisfaction with their lot as "kept mistresses." There is evidence that educators are coming to realize that they must become social critics, not merely passive acceptors of "truth" as seen by the dominant social forces of the time. Democracy as *idea and action* seems to be creeping back into the thought-processes of the educators.

The second pamphlet, *Education for the Preservation of Democracy*, is a report of the proceedings of the Thirtieth Educational Conference held in New York City last October under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education. Included are a number of addresses dealing with various aspects of the problem of preserving our democratic order. Speakers at the conference dealt with guidance toward democratic citizenship, free science in our society, squaring evaluation processes with democratic values, progress in the social sciences, the liberal spirit in education, contemporary female education, the implications for democracy in the report of the President's Commission on Higher

Education, and the role of higher education in world co-operation. Participants in the conference included Sarah Gibson Blanding, Harry D. Gideonse, Henry Chauncey, Maurice E. Troyer, John Dale Russell, Frederick Burkhardt, Millicent Carey McIntosh, and Francis J. Brown.

Dr. Blanding, president of Vassar College, concluded her conference address much in the vein of Dr. Sparling's charge to American educators:

Group intolerance, whenever it becomes virulent, is a deadly disease, and a contagious one. No nation can survive it; ours, because of its make-up, perhaps the least of all.

If we are to go into the future with any hope of creating a world fit to live in, we must rebuild the ancient values of tolerance and integrity. We must arrest the mental sickness that the war has spread over the world.

In this task education must shoulder a larger responsibility than it has heretofore done. We must reassert the dignity of the individual in such vivid terms that it will catch and fire the imagination of all the young people in our classrooms. If we succeed in this task, we will be equipping them to assume their rightful place as citizens in a country whose foundations were built on a solid rock of democratic philosophy.

School men will derive from these two pamphlets both ammunition and inspiration for the continuing warfare it is their duty to wage against the forces which threaten civil liberty.

Copies of Dr. Sparling's *Civil Rights* may be secured for \$.25 by writing to the Publications Department, Midwest Regional Office of the Anti-Defamation League, 327 South La

Salle Street, Chicago 4, Illinois. The report of the Educational Conference is available at \$1.50 from the American Council on Education (Study Series I, No. 35, Volume XIII, April, 1949), Washington 6, D.C.

#### EDUCATION INVADES VIDEO

**E**DUCATORS who, with Fred Allen, are convinced that television thus far is only the illegitimate offspring of radio and the cinema, may yet find themselves applauding without the help of the tin head and three eyes considered by Fred as standard equipment for today's video viewer. A recent issue of the *New York Sun* carried the announcement that the Columbia Broadcasting System and the New York Board of Higher Education will co-operate on a project whereby lessons in American history and current world issues will be televised into the homes of New York City residents, perhaps by the turn of the year.

The proposed program, which will be tested in Hunter College this fall, will include lectures, documentary films, and dramatizations of historical highlights. The project will involve more than mere viewing, however. Supplementary reading will be required, as well as written papers and examinations, if viewers are to receive the college credits which the project proposes to award.

Most educators and many laymen will doubtless rejoice at this plan to utilize an exciting new medium for eminently worth-while purposes.

They surely would add, however, a passionate plea for careful planning at the outset, for intelligent selection of materials, for sensible adaptation of content and method to the new medium, and for courageous experimentation in the search for increasingly effective ways of teaching with this latest of man's electronic miracles. Until we are convinced that the sponsors feel the same way, perhaps we ought to hang on to our tin heads and three eyes.

#### AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

**T**HE week of November 6-12 is to be observed as American Education Week. The 1949 theme will be "Making Democracy Work." The sponsors of this week maintain that it is not just another special week but rather is a "time to review the history, purposes, and achievements of our schools; canvass their needs and problems; sharpen citizen interest in securing necessary improvements; and strengthen home and school relationships."

While few educators would deny the value of the idea of American Education Week, many of them would admit that in wide areas little is actually done to make the week effective. By and large, administrators have not been "sold" on the idea to the extent of being willing to make The Week memorable in their communities. Too many educators, it appears, are overwhelmed by immediate problems. Would it help if these good people had the time to put their feet up on their

desks for a couple of hours a week so that they could reflect on the future and think about educational problems not at their own doorsteps? Or read a book?

There is no better time to add one's weight to the educational scales than during American Education Week—except during the remaining fifty-one weeks.

#### WHICH LANGUAGE FIRST?

A RESEARCH study made by Gilbert C. Kettelkamp and recently published by the University of Illinois will help teachers and guidance personnel who are still beset by the age-old problem of what foreign language students ought to start with, either in high school or in college. While the study, issued under the title of *Which Step First?* (University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XLVI, No. 58), is not likely to settle the problem forevermore, it nevertheless adds considerable weight to the hypothesis that the study of Latin is not of particular value as preparation for work in a second foreign language.

Mr. Kettelkamp secured his data from the University of Illinois High School and from the Thornton Township High School in Harvey, Illinois. Inasmuch as current foreign-language tests based on achievement have not been administered in many schools over an extended period of time, the researcher used records of marks to determine the achievements of the students.

As far as Latin is concerned, Mr.

Kettelkamp concludes that this language is not superior to any other as preparation for improved work in a second language. He finds that a greater gain can be expected, in general, when a student goes from one modern language to another, or from a modern language to Latin, than when a student goes from Latin to a modern language. Without further research, one can only conjecture about the reasons underlying this finding. The investigator suggests that Latin, as it is usually taught, develops study habits unsuited to the learning of a modern language or that teachers of Latin mark more severely than teachers of French, for example—a hypothesis which hardly flatters our colleagues in the ivy tradition.

Mr. Kettelkamp's general conclusions point toward the abandonment of the practice of justifying the study of a first language on the ground that it prepares for the study of a second and further suggest that a new type of preparation for foreign-language study be developed. The security of language teachers is not challenged, however, for Mr. Kettelkamp vigorously supports the teaching of foreign languages in terms of their contributions "toward improving cultural and social relationships and understandings among peoples of the world, as well as toward developing functional skills in the use of the languages."

Teachers of the modern tongues who wish to add the weight of scholarly research to their between-class debates with friends in the classical



field may secure this report from the Bureau of Research and Service, College of Education, the University of Illinois.

#### EDUCATION FOR ADOLESCENTS

**A**LTHOUGH the junior high school was conceived in the mind of American educators before it came into existence, and has now firmly established itself as a part of our educational system, there is, nevertheless, considerable diversity among the practices of these institutions. Analysis of the returns from a recent questionnaire distributed among the sixty superintendents in the Chicago Metropolitan region who form the Superintendents' Study Club indicated that no two junior high schools were doing the same things for their sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade pupils. A serious problem was thus posed: Which of these diverse programs is to be preferred? Or what new program, compounded of the best elements of them all, ought to be instituted in the junior high school?

Out of a year's study of the problem by the Study Club has come a monograph which will be of particular interest to administrators and teachers concerned with the educational programs of the junior high school. Starting with the thesis that there is "abundant justification for a somewhat distinctive type of educational program for young adolescents," the monograph goes on to explore rather fully the demands placed on schools by the nature of early adolescent youth;

the demands placed by society on schools for adolescents; the program of education for young adolescents; and the personnel, plant, public relations, and other administrative provisions necessary in such schools. An excellent bibliography on the adolescent period is appended.

Chapter iv of the monograph constitutes the major section. Discussed here are the interpretations of the significance of the research on young adolescents for (1) the methodology and materials of instruction, (2) the grouping of pupils, (3) guidance and other services, and (4) the student-activity program. In order to make clear the actual synthesis of the educational program into a practical total school program, the authors of the monograph have included a time schedule, developed to "illustrate the type of program which seems to be implied by the research on junior high school youth."

The monograph, *Schools for Young Adolescents*, by Dan H. Cooper and Orville E. Peterson, of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, may be secured for \$0.75 from the Committee on Field Services, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

The Committee on Junior High School Problems of the California Association of Secondary School Administrators, under the chairmanship of M. E. Herriott, has prepared a *Handbook for California Junior High Schools*. This is a study of the historical significance of the junior high

school in California, of its objective and philosophies and present-day practices, which is designed to "assist junior high school administrators to evaluate their own school programs and current practices in terms of the accepted philosophies underlying today's junior high schools." Educators concerned with schools at this level will find the *Handbook* valuable as a standard of comparison between their own practices and those of the California schools. It is published by the California State Department of Education, Sacramento, California, as Number 2 of Volume XVIII of the *Bulletin* of the Department.

#### A BRIEF LOOK AT RECENT PUBLICATIONS

*A study of reading difficulties* The staff of the Reading Clinics of the University of Chicago has collaborated to produce a monograph devoted to the clinical aspects of reading. Entitled *Clinical Studies in Reading. I*, the monograph was issued in June by the University of Chicago Press as Supplementary Educational Monograph 68 (available from the Press for \$3.50).

This is the fifteenth monograph (of a total of sixty-eight published) concerned with research in reading. As the Preface indicates:

There are few examples in educational research of a single line of inquiry which has been pursued for so long a period of time and with such coherence in the relatedness of the studies as is furnished by this example of research in reading at the University of Chicago.

The report is divided into three parts: the first describing the services of the Reading Clinics; the second reporting research carried on in the Clinics; and the third disseminating information which the staff believes will be useful to reading clinicians and to classroom teachers. Two appendixes provide an annotated bibliography of diagnostic tests and equipment and a list of remedial-reading materials and equipment.

*The use of current materials* Teachers of secondary-school youth who want to enrich their instructional procedures by using

current materials in their classes will find a valuable teaching aid in the new publication, *Better Learning through Current Materials*. Written for teachers by teachers, the book grew out of three years of experimentation in the use of current materials by a large group of teachers in high schools throughout California. The report, therefore, is not a statement of what ought to be done but is rather a detailed description of what actually has been done in many California schools to vitalize and enrich instruction through the increased use of current materials.

Happily, the book does not confine itself to the social studies but discusses how current materials can help instruction in English, mathematics, homemaking, art, science, and foreign-language classes as well. A number of areas of concern are discussed: having effective classroom discussions

developing pupil leadership, preparing the room display area, administering current materials, and evaluating the effectiveness of teaching procedures. Desirable practices are presented through the recording of actual teaching procedures utilized by members of the group participating in the experiment.

The book was edited by Lucien Kinney, professor of education at Stanford University, and Katharine Dresden, lecturer in education at the same institution. The publication may be obtained for \$3.00 from Stanford University Press.

*Teacher-made tests* One weakness which too many classroom teachers exhibit is a lack of understanding of test construction and a consequent dependence upon standardized tests for classroom examination purposes. Attest: the flood of standardized tests on the market—a flood from which the average teacher is hard put to it to select the precise instrument to measure how well pupils have met the precise objectives of a particular course. Whatever the reasons for this weakness, Science Research Associates, of Chicago, provide an effective remedy in a new publication, *Constructing Classroom Examinations*, written by Ellis Weitzman, the university examiner at American University, and Walter J. McNamara of the International Business Machines Corporation.

The authors discuss test construction from every important classroom

angle: basic aspects of achievement tests, steps in classroom testing, the major types of tests, construction in the various content fields, scoring and grading, test analysis and records, and basic statistics (central tendency, variability, and correlation). The language is comprehensible to one who is not acquainted with statistical talk, and the examples used are neatly suited to the purposes of the text.

Teachers who are weak in test construction but who realize the importance of a test which gets at what they want to know about pupil achievement in their own courses will do well to spend some time with this book. Administrators could do both teachers and pupils a great service by basing an in-service education program for their teachers upon its contents.

The book may be secured for \$3.00 from Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois.

*Measure of a nation* When the Twentieth Century Fund published *America's Needs and Resources* in 1947, some reviewers reacted as they had to an earlier study concerning America's capacity to produce: "Here is the source book of planned economy." Many reviewers hailed it as one of the most important pieces of economic research in recent times. Both may have been right. At any rate, the Twentieth Century Fund has now issued a paper-bound volume based upon its 1947 parent, showing textually and pictorially what

Americans have produced over the last hundred years to meet needs for food, houses, clothing, medical care, and all of their other major wants. The volume, entitled *U.S.A. Measure of a Nation*, was prepared by Thomas R. Carskadon and Rudolf Modley.

The canvas of this briefer volume lacks the prodigious detail of the book from which it is drawn; but, for that very reason, the broad outlines of our economic landscape may stand out in it with greater clarity. As was said in the Foreword of *America's Needs and Resources*, it is a "moving picture of accomplishment and probabilities"—also of possibilities. . . .

When we stand aside from the immediate concerns of this month or last, from the inflation or deflation of the moment, and take a long look behind, the minor ups and

downs flatten out in a rising curve of economic activity, of increasing productive power, unique in the annals of this world. It is deeply impressive. And when we project this curve into the future, assuming that we can continue to act as we have in the past, we begin to realize America's vast economic and social potential.

Teachers of the social studies, as well as teachers in other fields, will find this volume useful not only as an encyclopedia of economic information but also as a stimulus to sober thought about the meaning of economic productivity and its place in a world adrift. The book is available from the Macmillan Company at \$1.00 a copy.

RICHARD L. HENDERSON

## WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

*Authors of news notes and articles*

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by RICHARD L. HENDERSON, director of administrative research of the public schools of Port Arthur, Texas. ROBERT E. KEOHANE, assistant professor of the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago, describes some of the dilemmas which arise in the re-education of the German people. ALEXANDER FRAZIER, curriculum consultant at Pheonix Union High Schools and Phoenix College, Phoenix, Arizona, considers the responsibilities of the audio-visual director in instituting and developing his program. ALICE R. BROOKS, formerly an instructor in library science and librarian of the Center for Instructional Materials at the University of Chicago, suggests the role that instructional materials centers should assume in schools and col-

leges. REGINA HEAVEY, English teacher in the Overbrook High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, discusses population and curriculum changes which have taken place in the high school during the past forty years. GORDON N. MACKENZIE, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and CLIFFORD BEBELL, assistant in the same institution, present a list of selected references on the organization of secondary education.

*Reviewers of books*

T. V. SMITH, professor of philosophy and citizenship at Maxwell School, Syracuse University. CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education at Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania. JOSEPH J. VALENTI, research assistant in the Department of Education of the University of Chicago.



## DILEMMAS OF GERMAN RE-EDUCATION: REFLECTIONS UPON AN EXPERIMENT NOBLE IN PURPOSE

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A CURSORY glance at leading educational journals of 1948 reveals a veritable flood of writings on American efforts to carry the blessings of our educational system to those who dwell in cultural darkness. Most of these writings are on a high level of idealistic aspiration, though recently some have been distinguished by a more sober note of realism.<sup>1</sup> A few adverse criticisms have been made, ranging from charges of American *cultural imperialism* to the demand that we perfect the American public-school system before going into the business of large-scale educational exporting. Almost all these articles, whether laudatory, "ob-

jective," or frankly hostile, deal in broad, general terms with a highly complex situation.

My own approach is more pedestrian. For two and a half months during the spring and summer of 1948 I was an educational consultant—or "ninety-day wonder," as the permanent staff dub such migrants—in Berlin and in North Württemberg-Baden. Books have been written about the Soviet Union on even less provocation! I shall content myself with raising a few of the questions which such an experience provokes and with suggesting such partial answers to them as have been the fruit of a half-year's reflection.

### VITAL QUESTIONS

American educators who are sincerely concerned that Germans shall "learn the ways of democracy," and that gallant minority of German educators who share this desire, are confronted with dilemmas such as these: (1) Can one person represent the power of a conqueror and the authority of a military government and at the same time be a sympathetic and effective educational adviser? (2) How can

<sup>1</sup> Of the many good recent general accounts of our educational work in Germany I recommend, in addition to those cited later, the following:

a) Robert J. Havighurst, "German Schools in 1947," *Elementary School Journal*, XLVIII (April, 1948), 418-26.

b) William F. Russell, "Teaching Germans To Teach Themselves," *Foreign Affairs*, XXVII (October, 1948), 68-77.

c) Vaughn R. De Long, "School Reform in Land Hesse," *American School Board Journal*, CXVII (October, 1948), 39-40, 83; (November, 1948), 32-34, 72, 74; (December, 1948), 35-37.

d) Franklin J. Keller, "Germany—A Clinical Case," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXX (April, 1948), 22-43.

representatives of an educational system such as ours, admittedly imperfect, presume to help to *reconstruct* (formerly, more bluntly, to *reform*) German education? (3) How shall we help the Germans to accept democratic ideas and institutions and to assimilate them into their culture?<sup>2</sup> (4) Can we place the truly progressive German educators in power, keep them there, and still be *democratic*?<sup>3</sup>

If you are highly charged with "social sensitivity," it would be better for you *not* to go to Germany for a while. The inevitable shock of the sight of the shattered homes in most cities; of the battered Opera House in Frankfurt, with its inscription, "Dem Guten, Wahren, Schönen";<sup>4</sup> of the denuded, littered space which was the Berlin *Tiergarten*; of the rubble, with

<sup>2</sup> In this article the approach to democratic education of the Educational Policies Commission (*Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940) is assumed as basically sound, though not completely adequate and in need of adaptation to German social and educational conditions.

<sup>3</sup> There is also another question which haunts us all—though more constantly and horribly in Germany than here—a question which cannot be more than raised in this article. It is this: "How does one inspire hope and a reasoned faith that there is a future of some worth for this generation?" The "failure of nerve" represented by this loss of hope and of faith and the concomitant attitude that nothing one does can make any real difference anyway, wherever found, cut away the very basis for any adequate education for democracy, or for anything else. It is the prevalence of this attitude which is perhaps our greatest obstacle.

<sup>4</sup> "To the good, true, beautiful."

a few stray pieces of wall, which covers blocks on blocks of what once were homes on the "wrong side of the tracks" in Pforzheim—all these give more than a hint of what pre-atomic war meant. (So do parts of London and Caen!) And any sensitive American in Occupied Germany last year realized what it meant to be one of a well-fed "ruling class" in a land where few then had really enough to eat. Nor is it surprising that some Americans stressed the sins of the Germans—and these sins were many—so that they might justify to themselves their own incomparably better lot. Later you will again be shocked when you realize that you have begun to take the rubble and the ruins for granted, as something normal and to be expected.

And what do *they* think of *us*? Of course, the attitudes cover the whole spectrum. Their attitudes range from the surly looks, or worse, of the purged and "not-so-ex-Nazis," to the atmosphere of *Gemütlichkeit* of a professional group who have worked harmoniously and profitably together for a week and who are now enjoying a social evening enlivened with songs, local wine, American cigarettes, and the contents of a CARE package. Their attitudes range from the formal correctness of a dogmatic, reactionary, uneducable German educator, who is waiting impatiently for these *verdammten Amerikaner* to get out, to the enthusiasm shining from the eyes of a young teacher whose recent stay in Sweden gave her glimpses of possibilities, hitherto unimagined, for the im-

provement of German education and of the society which it serves.

Unfortunately, and quite understandably, I believe, the former attitude prevails, at least in the American Zone of Germany. When this virile and gifted people lost their military and political power, when they saw their economy smashed into ruins, and, worst of all, when hope for a tolerable life departed, what did they have left? One thing—an unshakable conviction, at least among most persons over forty, that German culture was superior to all others and that the German educator was, and is; its invincible guardian against barbarian innovations. To a German teacher who believes in the necessity of allowing the German elite to be segregated from their fellows at the age of ten so that they may then begin the study of Latin, the insistence of American educators that such differentiation be postponed to the ripe age of twelve seems the foible of a wasteful, half-educated people. In rebuttal they charge—quite accurately, I think—that we Americans do not appreciate adequately the value of an aristocracy of intellect and the contribution which humanistic studies may make thereto. If the American educator bases his demand for an undifferentiated school for children from age six to age twelve on the ground that democratic attitudes are promoted through the mingling of all kinds and conditions of boys (or of girls), so much the worse for democracy!

#### OVERCOMING BARRIERS TO CO-OPERATION

Thus, to the difficulty of achieving sympathetic understanding and co-operation between the occupier—one of four occupiers, with four different systems of education—and the occupied, is added the barrier of mutually contending senses of superiority. For the American is justly proud of his high aims, of his vision of a whole people educated for *democratic living*, beyond a mere literacy and a narrow technical training for a job. He is also proud of the great steps taken in our recent history toward its achievement.

The German educator, on the other hand, is acutely aware of how spotted is the actuality of American education. Unfortunately, it is obvious all over the Zone that *all* American youth have not been educated to appreciate what cultivated Germans appreciate nor always to exemplify the ideals of democracy. To put a *snack bar* and other *special services* in the main building of one of the world's greatest universities and to banish students from the building, except for special occasions, is not the best evidence that Americans love learning! The fact that American educators had no direct responsibility for this blunder only suggests to Germans that perhaps education is not so highly regarded in America as it is in Germany. Recently the director of our educational work in Germany, Dr. Alonzo G. Grace, found it advisable to warn that our "bigness" should not be stressed to German educators who were visiting the

United States and to urge that they should not return to Germany ignorant of our art galleries and orchestras and most keenly aware of our steaks and of the bright lights of Broadway!<sup>5</sup>

In practice, of course, American and German educators overcome most of these obstacles as they work together. The lowering—far too belatedly—of the barriers which were raised originally in a vain attempt to prevent *fraternization*, has helped. In June, 1948 it became possible for me to have the Minister of Education as my guest in the Officers' and Civilians' Club where I usually ate! Those Germans who are not already thoroughly immunized against learning from Americans—and there are a good many of them—do begin, after a little experience in workshops and on committees, to see the value of some of our better suggestions and to point out to one another the relevance of these ideas to their own educational conditions. And so do their students. My most eager listeners were students, whether from the high school (in the American sense), the normal school, or the university. Nor were they merely hearers of the word; they liked putting on a "town meeting" on the East-West conflict and on Germany's proper position in it, or on the need for, and the nature of, educational reform. The American emphasis on the initiative of individual teachers and on the de-

<sup>5</sup> Alonzo G. Grace, "Report from Germany," p. 3. No. I, Office of Military Government for Germany (U.S.), Education and Cultural Relations Division, APO 696-A, U.S. Army. February 1, 1949 (mimeographed).

sirability of minor local variations in curriculum and instruction finds eager response among the abler and braver teachers who are galled by the bureaucratic rigidities of a highly centralized and a highly routinized school system.

Then, when Americans are appreciative of aspects of German history, scenery, and culture and are aware of America's great debt to Germans in the educational field, an additional ground for friendly co-operation exists. There are few, if any, American college graduates who do not have an *educational genealogy* that soon leads to great German university teachers. For example, two of my own most honored teachers had studied under an even more famous American historian whose two most influential professors had studied at Berlin and Heidelberg. Some of the most effective American educators in Germany were, of course, men and women who had been students there in happier times. In a real sense, our educational work in Germany today is a partial repayment on an old debt, though too often neither Americans nor Germans properly appreciate that fact. In spite of all our differences, the sense of belonging to the same civilization, with a common basic tradition, is vital. With a knowledge of our own debt to German education, with also a discriminating awareness of those areas in which we have gone beyond our teacher, qualified American educators may presume to suggest improvements in the German educational sys-

tem without becoming *cultural imperialists*.

Thus, the barriers of position and of pride can be broken down. But there is another barrier at least as formidable. As Dr. Adolph Grimme, the minister of education for Lower Saxony, has pointed out, democracy in Germany today is handicapped by the fact that it has twice been introduced into Germany from without as a program and a goal—a process which inevitably branded it as a foreign importation. And who are we, with our *un-American* this and that, to throw stones at other people who also equate what is foreign with what is evil? In that sense—in our common affliction in the modern world with a vicious ethnocentrism—one may agree with Germans that we are all guilty—though not all equally guilty.<sup>6</sup> An extreme nationalism is indigenous; democracy, at least as Americans understand it, is largely foreign to modern German thought and institutions. The perversion of the idea of democracy which nazism represented, combined with the more recent pretentious use by the Communists of the phrases, the *new democracies*, the *people's democracies*, has made Germans wary.

Too many people—not exclusively Germans—have mistaken a manipulation of the forms of democracy for

the thing itself. When one really has an opportunity to discuss with intelligent, well-educated Germans the elements which make American democracy work as well as it does, it is apparent that much of our system is not now applicable to Germany. It is also apparent that there are elements in the British and other European forms of democracy which are probably better suited to German conditions and which are equally democratic. When Germans who did not understand or accept the basic assumptions of democracy have been allowed to manipulate some of its mechanisms, it is not to be wondered that the results have often been disappointing.<sup>7</sup> But where an electorate understands and accepts those premises as their own, as in Western Berlin, the results put most of our own electoral performances to shame and demonstrate that some of the staunchest democrats in the world are Germans.

#### THE SOCIAL-SCIENCE CURRICULUM

In North Württemberg-Baden, where most of my work was done, I soon discovered that the most serious academic gap in the social-studies field in the elementary school was in that area which, for want of a better name, may be designated as "civics"—the non-historical, non-geographical part of the social studies. However, when I suggested that time be allotted and books written for such studies, I

<sup>6</sup> For an analysis of such attitudes among American soldiers near the end of the war and for a severe criticism of the American educational system for failing to counteract such tendencies, see M. B. Smith, "Did War Service Produce International-Mindedness?" *Harvard Educational Review*, XV (October, 1945), 250-57.

<sup>7</sup> See Bernard Taper, "Heil Free Elections!" *Harper's Magazine*, CXCVIII (February, 1949), 29-37.



was met with a curiously familiar reaction. Civics had been tried, I was told, and had been found wanting. Under the Weimar Republic civics had been objective, dull, and uninteresting. Recalling the *civil government* of my own childhood, I silently concurred in the verdict. Under Hitler, my informants added, civics had been exciting, misleading, and *propagandistic* (in the *bad* sense of that word). I think that I convinced a few of the more open-minded teachers that the defects were not inevitably inherent in the subject and that controversial issues could be fairly treated on the higher levels of the elementary school. Some of the better American textbooks in community civics and in American government helped in my efforts at persuasion. Of course, the problem of providing time for such an academic intruder in an already overcrowded curriculum was something else again; in that state the most promising place for such studies seemed to be in the vocational continuation schools.

One of the major problems in this effort to "reconstruct" German education arises from a German nationalism which is fostered by that of each of the four occupying powers. When I was in Württemberg-Baden, the French were "reforming" the educational system of the southern parts of both states *à la français*, while we were trying mildly to *Americanize* some elements of the schools in the northern half of the same historic areas. A better-justified stimulus for a German

nationalistic reaction, with "a plague on both your houses," could scarcely have been concocted, nor a better opportunity provided for the Germans to play one occupier against the other. Some Germans told me that the French made them use history textbooks which glorified Napoleon. What they told the French about us I do not know; but we heard rumors that some Germans ascribed our snail-like pace in getting new history textbooks written and published to a dark design on our part for depriving German schoolchildren of a knowledge of Germany's past greatness and thus indirectly disparaging German culture. Actually, a "leaning-over-backwards" to refrain from even the appearance of coercion, a lack of co-ordination within the American Zone between the educational authorities—German and American—of the several states, and the continual shortage of newsprint were primarily to blame.

In Berlin, of all places, a common outline for history-teaching was agreed upon in the spring of 1948 by the history subcommittee of the Education Committee of Allied Kommandatura, the Four-Power body supervising the then-united government of Berlin.<sup>8</sup> Of course all teachers know what a gap exists between an outline of content drawn up by a central committee and the actual learning by children and young people in classrooms.

<sup>8</sup> An account of the work of the history subcommittee appeared in "Making History," *Time*, LI (June 21, 1948), 59-60 (regular edition), 27-28 (overseas edition).

To bridge part of this gap was the object of the textbook-writing which Miss Kelty has so well described.<sup>9</sup> After the Russian- and the American-sponsored textbooks to implement this plan have been completed—if they ever are—I am confident that a critical comparison of them will be most amusing and instructive. I suspect that those persons who still say that the answer to the problem of teaching controversial issues is “just to teach the facts” will receive a shock from which they will never fully recover!

The problem of the culminating (twelfth) year of the Berlin history curriculum illustrates vividly both the Soviet-Western conflict of values and the gulf which exists between prevailing German and American ideas of the proper content for such a course. Everyone agreed that the chief function of the year's work was to integrate the historical instruction of the preceding seven years and that the integrative aim should govern the selection and the pedagogical organization of content. The able Soviet major on the subcommittee pressed quite successfully—or so it seemed to me from what I heard and read of the work—for an undue stress on the countries with a “new democracy” and for the strategic location of similar emphases at the end of units of work. Certainly my reading of the outline left no doubt in my mind that the chief result of the content, well taught, would lead Ber-

lin youth to conclude that, although the Western democracies had had an interesting and, in some respects, an important past, the “wave of the future” was from the East. It was a fact that 87 per cent of the thinkers mentioned in one part of the outline had no taint of communism, as the Soviet major accurately pointed out, but that fact meant just a little less than nothing under the circumstances. For example, the treatment of the forms and theories of the state might begin with Plato, but they ended with Karl Marx, Joseph Stalin, and the *new democracies*. The Soviet major's hasty and extemporaneous addition, “Oh, yes, and Jefferson,” was an amusing but relatively insignificant bow to the West. The last part, “Cross Sections,” consisted of the following topics: “The Hellenistic Age, the Era of Augustus, the Crusades, the Renaissance, the French Revolution, the Revolutions of 1848-1849, the Great Socialist Revolution of October 1917, World War II, and the Young Democracies.”

In an earlier stage of this discussion, American educators had suggested for this twelfth year an outline of what amounted to a social-science course of the “problems” type, suitable for the Senior year of high school or the Freshman year of college in the United States. The proposal did devote somewhat more attention than would normally be given here to theories of historical causation and of interpretation, to historical methodology, and to political thought. This gesture in the direction of compromise was rejected

<sup>9</sup> Mary G. Kelty, “Specific Advances in Germany's New Task of Social Education,” *Social Education*, XIII (January, 1949), 15-21.

by the subcommittee in favor of a topical review of political, economic, and cultural factors in history, presented in such a way as to include a large amount of political theory, some attention to historical methodology, and a quite sophisticated examination of differing philosophies of history. The plan which was agreed upon was certainly more harmonious with the traditions of the Continental secondary school than were our suggestions, though I should suppose that a place would be found for both in any educational system—European or American—which undertook to provide an adequate general and liberal education for citizenship through the junior-college level. Of course, as always, the traditional restrictions of time for the social studies was a crucial factor. Also, as usual, the plan which was adopted was most *ambitious*. The first comment of my South German friends when they saw the outline was that the “bragging Berliners” pretended to teach much more than they ever could or would!

#### RECONSTRUCTION

In the light of reflection upon my experience in Germany in 1948, I am convinced that the recent American shift to an emphasis upon *reconstruction* rather than *reform* of German education is well advised. The reconstruction must start from where the Germans are. It should, in my opinion, seek to lay hold upon and to stress those liberal and democratic elements which can be discovered in the minor strains of the German tradition.

Though few and subordinate, such elements do exist.

The notion does not seem at all recondite; it had occurred to me five months before I went to Germany. When I arrived at Berlin in May, 1948, I learned that the idea had been worked out two years earlier by Professor A. E. Zucker, of the University of Maryland, in his excellent anthology of German liberal thought, *Deutschlands vergessene Freiheit*. Here are brought together suitable extracts from such writers as Luther, Lessing, Kant, Herder, Goethe, Schiller, Alexander von Humboldt, Carl Schurz, Baroness Bertha von Suttner, Thomas Mann, and from the Weimar Constitution. It ends, most appropriately, with some of the moving sonnets of the martyred Albrecht Haushofer. Such a book should have been invaluable as a means of reinforcing education for democracy in the study of German literature in the secondary school. The general use there of such an anthology would have made some contribution to the much needed blasting of the idea that liberalism and democracy are wholly of foreign origin. Yet two years after it had been compiled in Berlin, no one in our Service Center at Stuttgart would admit having heard of it.<sup>10</sup> For me this inci-

<sup>10</sup> A. E. Zucker, *Deutschlands vergessene Freiheit: Eine Anthologie deutscher freiheitlicher Schriften von Luther bis zur Gegenwart*. Berlin, Germany: Pontes Verlag, 1946.

However, the work is now in a second edition and is used in some schools in Hesse and Bavaria, so that my experience may not have been really representative.

dent remains one of the minor mysteries of the administration of our military government in Germany.

Another means which may, in the long run, further significantly the development of German democracy is the sending of German students, teachers, and leading educators to democratic countries to study or to observe schools. Some able young German teachers are now studying in the United States. Upon their return, they may be expected to assume leadership along democratic lines in their own schools and communities. Those German educational leaders who have been brought to this country have seen some of the best in American education. It is unfortunate that we have not been able to take such evidence to Germany by making excellent "demonstration schools" out of all the schools which the Army runs for the children of American military and civilian personnel.

#### PRACTICAL DIFFICULTIES

Some of our difficulties in educating Germans for democracy stem from the fact that the "hard-boiled" administrators of a conquered people can scarcely be expected to take such efforts as seriously as educators do. Everything else—security, economic recovery, the enlistment of German opinion on our side in the cold war—all of these and more have, and must have, for *practical* men, priority over the educational work which optimistic Americans there think might be completed successfully within a gen-

eration. Also, if Germans are to learn by democratic methods, it is argued, they must have some opportunity to learn by doing. What more fitting than to turn over to them control over the less vital sectors of their common life, including, of course, education? In important matters such as currency reform, to be sure, we did not do this; we listened to the Germans' advice—and took a little of it.

Education is different. There we retain a theoretical veto, and in practice this means that a great deal of work goes into the formulation of "reform plans" which are taken really seriously by few people other than the American educators whose duty it is to criticize them—and to return them for amendment. In the spring of 1948, for instance, when it began to look as if such a "reform plan" might soon be approved by our leaders, the appropriate committee of the legislature of North Württemberg-Baden informed both the American and the German authorities that the 1948 plan was too "advanced" and that they would have to revert to the 1947 scheme, which had been discarded six months earlier as unsatisfactory. Those *émigré* Germans, and others, who have been worried by the possibility of a serious "Americanization" of German education may be reassured. They have overlooked the immense capacity of German educators for producing large plans which have little to do with what actually goes on in schools.

The story of our attempt (to August, 1948, at least) to educate Ger-

mans in the "ways of democracy" is neither black nor white, but gray. We have had many more "good ideas" than we could work out; we have overlooked some which could fairly readily have been successfully implemented; we have not co-ordinated well the work of our own educators; we have not achieved vital co-operation—except, temporarily, in Berlin—with the educational authorities of the other occupying powers. But we have shown ourselves sincere friends of the German people; only the most suspicious or malicious among them fail to credit us with good intentions. We have established good professional relations with Germans who share our outlook and have given a few of them generous opportunities for broadening their own experience. If their efforts are not stifled by those of their countrymen who see no serious blemishes in the German educational system, these progressive German educators may yet succeed in blending elements of our educational outlook with the best of their own.

It is apparent that the last question, "Can we put the truly progressive German educators into power, keep them there, and still be democratic?" has already been answered in the negative. We *could* have done so in 1945.<sup>11</sup> When a people who had the opportunity to develop a democratic way of life throws it away, as did the

<sup>11</sup> For an able account and analysis of the background for, and origin and early development of, our educational work in Germany, see Marshall M. Knappen, *And Call It Peace*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947.

Germans, with such consequences to others as ensued, their conquerors have a right to demand some guarantees against a repetition. Certainly it would have been reasonable for us to have conditioned our transfer of power to the Germans upon their demonstration that they had a fair understanding of what democracy demanded of them, that they were prepared in some measure to assume its responsibilities, and that they really wished to do so. In such an area as that of political re-education, where any significant results require many years of careful and consistent teaching, we might fairly have insisted that we retain complete authority for a generation. Perhaps the short-run results of such a policy would have been more impressive. Certainly such a policy would have called for a much greater outlay on our part of man and money—an expenditure which it is doubtful the American taxpayer would willingly have borne for long. More significantly, such a policy might well have resulted in the branding of those Germans who worked with us as *collaborationists* and have associated *democracy* indelibly in the German mind with the calamities of the postwar period and with alien rule.<sup>12</sup>

However, in 1949 the question is merely academic. We will not put any German educators in power or, without extreme provocation, seek to oust any now in control. Having given the

<sup>12</sup> For an analysis which supports this point of view see the recent article by Alexander Boeker, "The Army and German Democracy," *New Leader*, XXXII (March 26, 1949), 8-9.



Germans a measure of self-government, we would do well now to give them more. Soon, I suppose, all vestiges of our control over German education will cease, and, with it, our share of responsibility.<sup>13</sup> When that time arrives, those of us who worked with German teachers will hope that the seeds of educational change which we scattered did not all fall on stony ground. If we can avoid another and more dreadful holocaust, we may yet see the Germans, or the major part of that great people, "learning the ways of democracy" through guided experience within a democratic European federation which will be linked by mutual interest and outlook with the American people.

#### INFLUENCE ON AMERICAN THOUGHT

For Americans the most significant direct results of this educational experiment so noble in purpose may well be its influence on our own thinking. I believe that those of us who worked so closely with German educators will

address ourselves to American educational problems in a new way. Perhaps we shall try to strike a better balance between the deadening bureaucracy of the German and the excessive decentralization of the American systems of school administration. Perhaps we shall imitate Germans in giving a relatively high and secure social and economic status to our teachers, requiring in return that they be really well-educated men and women. Perhaps we shall learn that democracy does not preclude some special attention to the more thorough earlier education of the "gifted." We may see that, while "raising the average," we may also implement Jefferson's dream of equipping better the natural aristocracy of virtue and talents to cope successfully with the pseudo-aristocracy of birth and wealth. We might even take some steps toward overcoming that provincialism which makes *un-American* a synonym for the unsound and again learn, more discriminatingly than we did in the earlier era, from the educational experiences and thinking of other peoples.

<sup>13</sup> This article was written in March, 1949.

## HOW MUCH DOES THE AUDIO-VISUAL DIRECTOR NEED TO KNOW?

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### PROMOTING THE AUDIO-VISUAL PROGRAM

AS THE audio-visual director moves into duties that are new to him or into a new situation, he faces, first of all, the problem of building up or expanding the space given to the instructional materials with which he is concerned. His first task is that of promoting the provision of suitable places for use, adequate equipment, and a full supply of materials.

Such a task usually requires the kind of enthusiasm that, to outsiders, may sometimes seem to border on frenzy. The audio-visual director wants teachers to want to use his materials. Therefore, he extols the value of them. On his lips is often the sacred sentence, "A picture is worth a thousand words," particularly, it may sometimes seem, a thousand printed words. In his enthusiasm he may begin to think of teachers as being of two kinds, and two kinds only, those who favor books and those who prefer pictures. Occasionally he may even attempt to promote the use of his materials in situations in which printed materials would plainly be more effective.

Whatever excesses he commits appear intelligible as it becomes evident

that they belong to this period of promotion. That, during this phase, his chief criterion for judging good teaching should be the number of films or recordings or models or collections of flat pictures a teacher uses can be understood. If he talks in terms of the quantity of audio-visual equipment which is essential before a good teaching program can be put into effect, that too is understandable. One need not smile even when he begins to quote from the literature of his field such curious ratios as the "standard" use of one film in five classroom situations or one recording in five classroom situations or one set of museum materials in thirty. One simply needs to know that this person is still promoting something.

Evaluation of the audio-visual director's success during this period obviously can be only in terms of quantity. One compares the items of equipment in use this year with those used last year, the number of films and recordings bought or booked, the number of teachers sold; and one is satisfied to accept the fact that a good job is being done when substantial and continuing increases are established. Perhaps it is true that no director of audio-visual materials in our day can

escape from being continuously concerned with promotional techniques. No matter how far he has gone in the other phases of his work, he still finds some teachers incompletely converted and some teachers totally inexperienced. He still finds new materials and new pieces of equipment about which he needs to become enthusiastic. However, as he matures in his position and with his group of teachers, he should be able to become less concerned about quantity as such and more about efficiency in the handling of materials and equipment. In fact, as he succeeds in promoting the use of these items, he is forced into the next phase of his development.

#### ORGANIZING FOR EFFICIENT SERVICE

The second phase, then, through which the audio-visual director passes is that of organizing to provide efficient service in the provision of materials and equipment. In so far as he has been successful as a promoter, just to that degree will it be necessary for him to become an organizer. He finds that, in order to provide every teacher with the films and records and other materials at the time of need, he must set up schedules for the use of equipment and, if it is not possible to darken all rooms, with a place for projection. He discovers, strangely enough, that he cannot operate two projectors at the same time himself. He must, therefore, train and supervise crews of student operators, or—and this is a much more difficult job—he must train teachers to operate the equipment.

He discovers that simply putting in order the materials that he may be collecting is in itself, clerically speaking, an enormous job. The time passes when it was possible for him to know and remember thoroughly the content and possible use of each item in his library. He must devise some means of keeping annotations of what use each item may serve. He finds, too, that the selection of materials becomes an increasingly heavy responsibility. In his earlier days he spoke convincingly about a good many things of which he knew at firsthand, perhaps had even used himself; but now, as teachers begin to broaden their use, he finds that they have run through the materials of which he has direct knowledge. To gather the catalogues and, through producers and magazines, to maintain contacts with the most successful new materials threatens to become in itself a full-time job. The time has come for teachers to make their own selections.

It is now that the audio-visual director begins to organize the procedure of selection by working with teachers individually and in groups. He sends them whatever information comes to him. He marks articles in magazines to pass along. He escapes, as he can, from remaining the only person thereabouts who knows the sources of materials. As use increases, teacher participation in the selection of materials will multiply under the leadership of a good organizer. Whether by levels or departments, representatives from each group of teachers will become the specialists in what is available.

As a part of his organizational phase, the audio-visual director will find it necessary to evolve forms of many kinds to help in bringing order. He will need a form to schedule use, a form for ordering, a form for evaluating material. Before long, he will also find it necessary to provide additional desk baskets to hold the thick sheaves of forms. Card catalogues will appear on his desk. Filing cabinets will begin to take up the little free space in his crowded quarters.

One morning he will walk into his office with fresh eyes. He will see crowding in on him all these boxes and baskets and cabinets. It will seem to him, in that moment of insight, that the stacks of mimeographed forms which range high on the shelves along his walls are about to collapse upon him. Then it is, if he is able to maintain his insight, that he may pass from the second stage of his development, that of organizing, to the third and culminating stage, that of counseling and advising teachers about the most effective use of materials.

#### COUNSELING TEACHERS ABOUT EFFECTIVE USE

We shall suppose that the audio-visual director does come through his phase as organizer without being submerged in detail. We shall suppose that he contrives to maintain his efficiency in supervising and scheduling the use of equipment and materials and that he comes now to the point at which he has some time for reflection.

This point is critical. If he finds

that, at first, he seems to have nothing to reflect on or that thinking certain problems through rigorously is less attractive than the resumption of routine operative tasks, he is likely to discover also that he seems to have less and less free time for reflection. However, if he faces the fact that, once he has achieved efficiency in his office, he does have certain obligations even broader than those he has assumed thus far, then he will be increasingly concerned about functioning as an adviser or a counselor to teachers on the more effective use of audio-visual materials.

For one thing, he will then begin to give more of his time to problems of selection. He will work increasingly with teachers and teacher groups to survey the materials and to set up standards for their selection. He will help educate others, as he educates himself, in what makes a film or recording or other device a superior one. He will become less and less tolerant of inferior productions. As he and the teachers with whom he works become more knowing, he will begin to think of what it is about the materials with which he works that is uniquely theirs and how learning situations may be set up to make use of the unique. In evaluating the use of audio-visual materials, he will begin to look back on an earlier time when, as promoter, his criterion was chiefly an increase in quantity, or to his more recent experience as organizer when his criterion was an increase in efficient operation, and he will become aware that the only criterion by which he now cares

to have his program judged is that of quality in kind and use.

#### SCOPE OF KNOWLEDGE NEEDED IN COUNSELING ROLE

It may be that, as the audio-visual director enters fully into his responsibility as a counselor of teachers on educationally sound and discriminating use of his materials, he will feel less well equipped than he did to serve as promoter and organizer. He may begin to ask himself how much he ought to know in order to do his job as it should be done. Perhaps if we were to phrase a few questions for him about what he ought to know and to suggest something of the scope of the knowledge that would be useful, we ourselves would be better able to appreciate the task that confronts the audio-visual director who succeeds in emerging from the promotional and organizational stages of his development and stands ready to assume larger obligations.

#### 1. *How much does the audio-visual director need to know about children and how they learn?*

He needs to know the role of maturation in learning, what it is that he should expect a seven-year-old or a nine-year-old to be capable of comprehending. He should know how the newer concept of developmental learning is affecting the thinking of teachers and consequently their teaching from the kindergarten through the secondary school.

As a part of his understanding of the developmental approach to learning, he should gain particularly a

knowledge of how children build their concepts. He ought to be concerned with the relationship of language development to learning. He will need to know how direct experience determines or validates the meanings which children attach to words and how these concepts deepen and broaden with a variety of experiences.

Certainly he must understand the role of needs and interests in learning, not only as these relate to the developmental phases through which young people pass, but also as they concern motivation. He should be aware of what the child with whom he is working considers really important learning needs, whether, with the six-year-old, this is to learn to feel comfortable in other than a home environment or, with the sixteen-year-old, to accept the emerging shape and size of himself. It will help the audio-visual director to know what the learner wants in a given learning situation and to what extent this happens to coincide with what the teacher wants.

In addition, he ought to know something about what the child learns from other than classroom experiences. He will need to ask what the family and the peer group and the neighborhood and the wider community have to teach the child. He ought to know something of how the child's interests tend to widen from his home and school outward into the community and then into a curiosity about, and concern for, peoples in other than his own immediate circle of sight.

It will help him to have some sort of systematic, up-to-date understanding



of the field of learning, some over-all organization of such understandings as have already been suggested. It may be that the educational psychology which he studied ten or fifteen or twenty years ago no longer provides the kind of framework within which his other understandings of the role of maturation and concept development and nonformal learnings will fit.

Certainly understanding as much as possible about children and youth and how they learn as they develop is basic to working with other teachers toward improving effective learning.

2. *How much does the audio-visual director need to know about the acceptable organization of learning experiences?*

If he is to be of maximum service, not only to teachers, but to the development of an adequate program, the director of audio-visual materials will need to know what a good program looks like. He should be acquainted with the nature of the core program, in which an attempt is made to unify learnings in terms of what is now known about the learner. He will need to be aware of the concepts that lie behind the attempt in the social-studies sequence to build out from the child's interest toward basic understandings in which society, through the school, has a stake. He needs to know how teachers may be helped to achieve the integration of learning in their classrooms. As an adviser on materials and their use, he is directly concerned with seeing and consolidating connections between the many, sometimes compartmentalized, learn-

ing experiences which the child undergoes.

One of his needs will be to understand what is considered today an acceptable relationship between special fields in the school and the core program. He will need to see to what extent music, art, construction activities, and physical education are a part of the total learning of the child. It will help him in planning the use of materials if he knows something about the skills and understandings in these fields as they may emerge from, or are bound up in, a core program.

At another level, he should surely be adequately acquainted with what general education ought to mean to American youth. He will need to know the relationship of core courses to each other and the ways in which these contribute to what are considered the major areas of emphasis in the high schools of today. Unless he understands, for example, the common concern which he ought to find throughout his school for family-life education, health and safety education, and consumer education, he will be hard put to it to see the need for promoting group planning in the use of audio-visual materials.

He needs, then, to know how the program of a good school is related not merely from one grade to another but within each year. As he functions in any situation, he tends either to reinforce what is being done or to point toward the direction of what ought to be done. His responsibility, like that of any other person working in terms of the total school picture, is toward

the future as well as toward the present.

3. *How much does the audio-visual director need to know about the variety and use of instructional materials in promoting effective learning in an acceptably organized situation?*

To begin with, the audio-visual director has to know a good deal about reading. What is now known about the way in which children learn to read and develop their skills of reading has great significance for any person concerned with any kind of learning. The concept of readiness, the increasing understanding of the role of interest, the emphasis that is now placed, in reading instruction, on motivation and use—all are as important for the person who is promoting or organizing the use of other instructional materials as they are for the teacher or the librarian. Unless the audio-visual director has a firm grasp of the reading process, he is likely to fail in understanding the relationship to be found among all instructional materials and experiences.

Perhaps as a part of his understanding of reading instruction, the director will learn more about the effective use of grouping within the classroom. Films and recordings are still largely used as group experiences. Learning about the use of small groups within the classroom may serve to enlarge the perspective of the audio-visual director, to suggest new types of use, and, just as important, reveal limitations in the use of some of his own materials.

Again, and far more essential to his

understanding, the practices involved in unit planning and teaching ought to be thoroughly familiar to him. Perhaps we have not as yet come too far in what we have to teach teachers about the use of films. We speak of preparation, presentation, and follow-up for each item of instruction, all too often limiting our expectation of results to the individual item. Understanding the relationship of the film or recording or set of pictures to what has been studied yesterday and will be studied tomorrow and what was set up last week as the purposes of all this reading and observing and listening would help the audio-visual director to guide the teacher, not only in the choice of the materials, but in their use. Unless the audio-visual director has some concept of how to begin, develop, summarize, and evaluate a study of a large area, he will scarcely be in a position to help a teacher in the planned provision of the many kinds of materials to be found in a modern program. He will be further handicapped to suggest, even in isolation, the possible uses a film may have at any stage of the unit-learning procedure.

The director also ought to be acquainted with audio-visual materials in the broadest possible sense. He needs to be conscious of the community as a source of learning, of direct seeing and hearing. He ought to be aware of the many kinds of community experiences that can be planned. He ought also to be as much concerned with providing a variety of materials in the school. He should be thoroughly

acquainted with the possibility of building in-school collections of pictures and models, as well as of recordings, filmstrips, and films. He should know enough about construction activities so that he can advise a teacher on ways in which such activity can contribute to classroom model-building.

Emphasis on the variety of materials is essential if the audio-visual director is not to find himself turned into little more than an order clerk and a service technician.

#### APPLYING THIS KNOWLEDGE SPECIFICALLY

Thus the audio-visual director will need to know a good deal if he is to progress from the second stage of his development, that of organizer of his materials, to his proper position as adviser and counselor of teachers. So we say. Yet it may be that we are not quite sure that a need for knowledge of such kinds actually exists. Does it really matter in any concrete situation, we may be asking ourselves, how much the audio-visual director knows about children and how they learn and about how their learning experiences should be organized and about how a variety of instructional materials may be most effectively used to promote learning? Perhaps to test our contention we ought to examine a number of sample problems of the sort that regularly confronts the person charged with the care of audio-visual materials.

*Problem One:* Miss Franklin, a teacher of ninth-grade English, decides for the first time

that she would like to use films to introduce a unit. She has a list of suitable films over which she confers with the audio-visual director. Miss Franklin wants to add several films together to get forty minutes of showing. "Why go to all the trouble of herding my class into the audio-visual room for just a ten-minute film?" she asks. Will the audio-visual director know, not only how to help Miss Franklin budget film experiences, but also how to suggest tie-ins with other beginning and developmental unit activities?

*Problem Two:* The audio-visual director attends a regional conference or convention at which there are many exhibits of new materials. In one booth there is displayed a series of new posters on the processes involved in the manufacture of cotton goods. These posters have not been widely advertised; they are not particularly dramatic. Does the audio-visual director know enough about the seventh-grade unit which is being taught on the manufacturing of textiles as a focus of understandings about industrialization to be able to assess and evaluate these materials? Does he know enough even to notice them?

*Problem Three:* Mr. Sanders, who used to be a manual-training teacher when the school was more highly departmentalized, has persuaded his fifth-grade pupils to offer their handsomely made models of log cabins, spinning wheels, and ox carts to the audio-visual department for use by other teachers. Will the director accept this generous gift? If so, will he ask for plans and procedures that will enable other teachers to provide similar learning experiences for their students? Will he ask Mr. Sanders to help other teachers set up work areas in their rooms? Or, accepting the gift, will the director route the models with the proper sets of pictures belonging to the various units on colonial life and let it go at that?

*Problem Four:* Miss Boswell's second-grade children are making a trip to a dairy. The class has invited the audio-visual director to go along. The pupils hope that he will take a few pictures with his new camera. On the trip the director sees many different

kinds of situations which can be photographed. Which ones will he record? How much does the director need to know in order to assure that these pictures will not merely be clear and well composed but will be fully useful to Miss Boswell and to other primary-grade teachers?

*Problem Five:* Mr. Barnes, the superintendent, asks the audio-visual director to submit his thinking on what would be desirable for the new high school, as far as audio-visual education is concerned, so that his plans may be compared with the suite of offices and the small auditorium seating two hundred that the architects have already roughly sketched out. How might the director's reaction to this request vary in accordance with what he knows about learning and the curriculum and the use of instructional materials?

*Problem Six:* The audio-visual director finds the board of trustees willing to finance a considerable library of materials. The board proposes to set up what seems to be a satisfactory per pupil allotment for the purpose. As one of his tasks, the audio-visual director has to work out a formula to determine which films shall be bought and which shall be rented. What will determine which films are purchased? To what extent will teachers be involved in a thoroughgoing analysis of the films that might be purchased? To what extent will a wise choice among these films depend on the audio-visual director's understanding of the major learnings being sought by the teachers with whom he works?

So much for sample problems. The audio-visual director does not need to know much about learning and the curriculum and the variety and use of materials to make some sort of solution for some of these problems. He needs to know a great deal to make the best solution for most of them. Certainly the broader and better educated he is in what teaching and learn-

ing are all about, the better able will he be to see done the things which no one denies can be done by audio-visual materials when these materials are properly used.

#### IMPLICATIONS OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Probably we have yet to begin to realize what the new materials are to mean to teaching and learning. Flat pictures in the hands of pupils or on the bulletin board or projected, slides and slidefilms, sound motion pictures—these promise to bring into the classroom highly significant and competitive picture experiences for the many similar experiences that the child encounters in the comic book and the magazines and on the billboards and at the drive-in. Educational broadcasts, recordings, and transcriptions; models and mock-ups; community tours and expeditions; and speakers from the community—all of these we are just beginning to see as basic learning materials and experience.

Today we do hear less of audio-visual "aids"; we do hear more talk about these materials as primary learning experiences. Of course, our concern for the possibilities of some of these materials, as we continue our search for best and broadest uses, may carry us to rather indefensible extremes. We may, for example, be tempted to think that a particularly successful production of some sort or other can be in itself a complete learning experience. Sex education, we should be aware, will never be ade-

quately handled by a single film, however well planned. Nor will teaching techniques, however skilfully built into such a film, ever take the place of an informed teacher at work with an alert and inquisitive group of children.

However, as we become increasingly aware of what all these instructional materials can do in combination with all our printed materials and all our techniques for teaching and learning, we shall expect increasingly of our audio-visual director the capacity for counseling and advising us. We know that all audio-visual directors are promoters. They have to be to justify their jobs and to get us to move. We know they are all organizers. They have to be to keep us from becoming discouraged. We hope they will all become, as many of them now are, our counselors on what we can do with the materials they have "sold us on" so convincingly and have organized for us so efficiently.

Audio-visual directors have to be salesmen and order clerks and service technicians, yes. However, unless they find time to reflect upon what they are doing, unless they find time to learn more about what their materials can and must mean in a good school program, they will never as a group become much more than salesmen and clerks and technicians. Audio-visual directors as a group would do well to

look at librarians as a group. School librarians today are suffering from a lack of leadership that would have put them in the center of the school picture where they belong, as counselors of teachers on the use of printed materials. Librarians, even yet, are too largely trained as clerks and technicians, too little trained to become what they must become if they are to be hired everywhere they are needed and paid as they should be paid.

Audio-visual directors are, at present, in a far more advantageous position than are librarians. For the most part, they are still persons who were trained first, or largely, as teachers. They have a head start because they have less to learn than most librarians about learning and the curriculum and the use of materials. Still they have much to learn. If they fail to see the possibilities for service in their job, if their leadership dwells chiefly on surveying the types of materials and learning to operate a dozen pieces of machinery, then they may, over a period of a decade or so, find their ranks being filled with persons who were educated to be audio-visual librarians.

Audio-visual directors must be more than promoters, more than order clerks, more than service technicians, if they are to become more and stay more. They must become and be teachers of teachers.



## THE ROLE OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS CENTERS IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

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### BACKGROUND

THE frequent appearance of such terms as "instructional materials," "materials centers," and "curriculum laboratories" in educational literature is the natural result of a logical sequence of events. Many years ago, when we began to predicate the success of a liberal education and a progressive educational program on the use of many books rather than on the use of single textbooks, certain outcomes became inevitable. First, school libraries became necessary in order to acquire, organize, and serve as laboratories for the use of these books. The publishing field was also affected, for, if modern education needed many books on many subjects, publishers were more than willing to supply this challenging market. Soon books ceased to be sufficient, and non-print materials were found to have roles in the educational pattern.

In typical American fashion we have taken these new educational materials to our hearts and accorded them such extensive attention and enthusiasm that it sometimes seems that the more traditional types of materials are in danger of being lost in the

shuffle. However, all materials—books for the general public, textbooks, and audio-visual materials—continue to be produced in such quantity that the result is almost overwhelming to educators who should be using them. The modern teacher must sometimes feel that instructional materials are too much with him, causing him to long for, and even surreptitiously revert to, the all-inclusive textbook.

### PURPOSES AND SCOPE OF MATERIALS CENTERS

Educators now believe that this flood of print, recordings, films, etc., needs some type of methodical appraisal and culling and that the teacher should have an introduction to the best materials, as well as some aid in selecting what will be most useful in his work. As early as 1942, an article on "The Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers in the Use of Library Materials" stressed this idea.

The third recommendation refers to the need for establishing materials centers in strategic geographical locations over the country. The potentialities of these centers for service to teachers, librarians, parents, and students have been increasingly recognized by some educators and librarians. In

brief, these centers are conceived to be depositories where all materials produced for children and for high-school students are housed and where those who are interested may come to examine the materials. The definitive nature of the collection, the provisions for not circulating materials so that comprehensive examinations of materials may be made, and a staff of experts provide opportunities for in-service teachers conveniently to examine new and other materials in their field.<sup>1</sup>

The past few years have brought about the establishment of many materials centers, but detailed examination indicates that they are varied in terminology, definition, and content.

The January, 1948, issue of *Educational Leadership* was devoted to the theme of "Instructional Materials." A perusal of its articles, as well as other evidence, substantiates certain facts and ideas about the present state and future trends in materials centers:

1. Since materials centers are considered essential agencies in modern education, they should be made as widely accessible as possible, but their development should not be of the "mushroom-growth" variety.

Francis Drag, director of curriculum in the San Diego County public schools, drawing on his study of "Curriculum Laboratories in the United States," gives a brief but telling picture of the current status:

Three hundred and fifty-three curriculum laboratories were reported by the 1,436 replies to the original request, as contrasted with 107 reported in 1938. Fifty-one of these

were reported by county school systems . . . , 145 by institutions of higher education, 135 by city school systems, and 22 by state or territorial departments of education. The expression of the need for curriculum laboratory service by 236 school systems or institutions of higher education responding to the inquiry but reporting no laboratory of their own, is a further indication of the trend in the development of such services.<sup>2</sup>

2. The purposes and scope of existing materials centers are extremely varied. A certain amount of individuality is a healthy state, but complete lack of common purpose and pattern may lead to unfortunate results in wasted time and expense, needless duplication of effort, and lack of effectiveness. One basic reason for this divergence is our varying emphasis in defining "instructional materials." Corey implies this in the opening paragraph of his article, "Imperatives in Instructional Materials":

It is interesting how often we teachers use a semitechnical expression without being much concerned about its meaning. Take the term "instructional materials" as an example. It is almost impossible to define instructional materials neatly so as to separate them from other aspects of the child's learning environment.<sup>3</sup>

Recently two people at a meeting of librarians from teacher-training institutions were discussing certain aspects of materials centers. Since they had not been in previous communication, one concentrated almost entirely on audio-visual materials as the major

<sup>1</sup> Francis L. Drag, "What Is a Curriculum Laboratory?" *Educational Leadership*, V (January, 1948), 236.

<sup>2</sup> Stephen M. Corey, "Imperatives in Instructional Materials," *Educational Leadership*, V (January, 1948), 211.

<sup>3</sup> Frances Henne and Mildred Hawksworth Lowell, "The Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers in the Use of Library Materials," *Library Quarterly*, XII (July, 1942), 556.

emphasis of such a center while the other considered this only one phase of instructional materials and included curriculum and reading materials as well. The comments of the audience in the discussion period showed that there was a similar discrepancy in understanding among the entire group. Such lack of communication, plus the tendency toward "mushroom growth," may become serious deterrents to certain broader functions of this educational agency.

3. Some clarification of ideas and over-all planning of materials centers seems needed to make them the effective educational instruments that we believe they can become. One of their most justifiable purposes is to exercise control of the oversupply of materials. If the centers in turn become too plentiful and directionless, what then becomes our next step in this endless chain of solutions?

It is not the purpose of this paper to belittle the importance of materials centers, to discourage their growth, or yet to stifle the originality of those centers that are already established but rather to suggest a workable design for their development that will prevent unnecessary duplication of effort and expense, will reduce the heavy demands on the production field, and will help keep the lines of communication from the creator to the consumer clear and effective. A letter to the Center for Instructional Materials at the University of Chicago from one publisher, in reply to a request for review copies of their children's books, said with justifiable

acerbity, "There are literally hundreds of organizations such as yours making these demands on us and doing what you are trying to do." This should not be true, and, when Mr. Drag cites his figures, we begin to wonder if it is not time to define our objectives more specifically and to distribute our functions more effectively through some kind of "hierarchic" organization.

#### THE CENTER FOR INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The establishment of the Center for Instructional Materials at the University of Chicago was preceded by a period of consideration as to whether its need was justified and of planning for its most effective scope. Its present design and future direction represent the broader aspects of a center.

It is concerned with the study, evaluation, and development of all materials of communication useful in modern education and consists of three units: the Audio-visual Center, the Curriculum Laboratory, and the Center for Reading Materials. There are six major functions with which this Center is concerned:

1. *To evaluate and analyze available instructional materials in an effort to separate the worth-while and usable from the worthless and even harmful.*

It is not easy to have access to all the materials being issued. Nevertheless, the Center attempts to accomplish this, and publishers are co-operating generously in the program. For example, the major publishing houses contribute review copies of their books

for children and young people. In order to evaluate the materials, and to do so as promptly as possible, there may be a tendency to rely too much on individual judgments. However, through pooled judgment, research, testing programs, and actual use by teachers and pupils in the Laboratory School, a more accurate appraisal is resulting, and sounder evaluative criteria are being developed. An analysis in terms of potential uses with children is applied to the materials that have a positive value. Important information, such as subject, maturity level, developmental values, uses, and appeals, is recorded for each children's book. When material is rejected, the reasons are noted.

2. *To disseminate the results of these evaluations and analyses as widely as possible and thus to publicize good materials when they are new and timely.*

The Center issues a *Monthly Service Bulletin* containing critical notes based on the above evaluations and analyses. The *Bulletin* lists not only recommended materials, with annotations, but rejected material, with reasons for the rejection. Thus the Center's staff hopes to keep the consumers better informed on materials, to supply them with criteria for evaluating and selecting good materials, and to develop in them a more critical attitude toward instructional materials now being placed at their disposal.

3. *To provide facilities and guidance for persons interested in undertaking research investigation in the areas of instructional materials.*

Illustrative of this function are certain courses and seminars now being offered to graduate students in both education and library science. One, a seminar on "Evaluation, Analysis, and Use of Materials for Children and Young People," is evolving sounder criteria for the appraisal of various types of materials in print that will improve the present evaluation procedures of the Center for Reading Materials. The course in "Audio-visual Instruction: Techniques and Materials" performs a similar function for the Audio-visual Instructional Materials Center. An article in *Elementary English* on "Evaluating Mystery Stories for Children"<sup>4</sup> is the result of one study using the Center as a materials laboratory.

4. *To enable teachers, librarians, students, and parents to examine critically all types of materials, in order to reach better judgments regarding their selection for use with children.*

In addition to the various "methods" and curriculum courses for which the Center is a fruitful laboratory, both individuals and groups within and outside the University use the Center and its materials for study and research. This public represents not only the "consumer" but also the producer. Authors and publishers welcome the opportunity of a complete overview of materials, to observe how well they fulfil instructional needs and to discover what kinds of demands are made on them and where

<sup>4</sup> Sarah Innis Fenwick, "Evaluating Mystery Stories for Children," *Elementary English*, XXV (December, 1948), 521-24.

the gaps and weaknesses occur. One effort to provide both creator and consumer with such an overview is an article in the children's spring issue of *Publishers' Weekly*.<sup>5</sup>

5. *To demonstrate, in collaboration with the Department of Education, the Graduate Library School, and the Laboratory School of the University, the effective use of various materials in teacher training and elementary- and secondary-school situations.*

In a teacher- and library-training institution, where competent people participate in the preparation of teachers and librarians, the Center's program of evaluation and analysis is constantly being tested through classroom situations and practical use. Various instructional resources are fitted into a balanced pattern that becomes part of the background of a good teacher.

6. *To give consultative service regarding instructional materials to producers, to educational systems, and to many agencies concerned with child development.*

The Center extends its services beyond the educational institution of which it is a part to the general production and educational fields. Besides disseminating the results of its evaluation and research through the *Monthly Service Bulletin* and published articles, it gives extensive service either directly or by mail. In this way programs of curriculum revision can benefit; teaching units can include a

well-selected body of representative, new, and pertinent materials; and publishers can develop needed and appropriate instructional materials.

From an examination of these six services it is evident that certain of them are needed by any institution preparing teachers or by any unit of public education. They represent responsibilities that should be assumed by selective materials centers, teachers' colleges, and state, county, and local school systems. Functions 3, 4, 5, and certain aspects of Function 6 may be assumed by such materials centers.

#### AN ORGANIZATIONAL PLAN

*Regional centers.*—There are, however, larger and more complex functions that only a few selected and well-placed materials centers should undertake.

For the purpose of making this plan and its organization clear, let us select certain key points throughout the country where materials centers are in the process of developing and attempt to set up a hierarchy of such centers. It should be stressed at this point that this is an entirely theoretical picture, a possibility to be appraised rather than an actuality. To become effective, certain steps which will be enumerated are necessary.

It would seem that a limited number of centers should become regional centers, working in close relation to the sources of production. They would acquire as far as possible, or have access to, the current output of all types of instructional materials. By their program of evaluation, experi-

<sup>5</sup> Alice R. Brooks, "A Backward Glance: 1948 Books for Children," *Publishers' Weekly*, CLV (March 26, 1949), 1418-26.



mentation, and research and through the dissemination of results, they would become clearing-houses and screening agencies for the more selective materials centers. They should be organized and administered by highly competent staffs; adequate financial resources should be assured; and they should be so located that their programs have a fruitful area for experimentation as well as access to a corps of specialists in various fields of child development.

Conceivably the regional centers might be located at Teachers College of Columbia University, George Peabody College for Teachers, University of Chicago, University of Texas, and University of California. These locations are selected either because they have materials centers already in existence or because, as important teacher- and library-training institutions, they are potentially suitable places for materials centers and also because they are fairly well distributed throughout the country's educational pattern. It is possible that at least one other center would be needed to serve the Pacific Northwest similarly.

*Other types of materials centers.*—Then, in addition to the regional centers, other teacher- and library-training institutions, as well as state, county, and city educational agencies, would develop materials centers with appropriate limitations. Figure 1 demonstrates the relationship of the regional centers to the production field and to the local materials centers.

The following outline also shows the

integrated functions of the various levels of materials center.

1. Functions of regional materials centers

- a) To serve as a channel of communication between producer and consumer
- b) To acquire, evaluate, and analyze the current output of all types of instructional materials and to disseminate information about acceptable materials.
  - (1) To explore, evaluate and disseminate information about instructional materials with regional or local emphasis.
- c) To serve as research and experimental laboratories for the development, evaluation, analysis, and use of instructional materials.
- d) To develop a training program for materials specialists and to conduct workshops for in-service training of materials specialists.
- e) To provide consultative and reference services for groups or individuals concerned with the selection of materials for various programs of child development.
- f) To develop reference tools needed in the evaluation and selection of instructional materials.
- g) To collect and disseminate data on the various materials centers of the country, to serve as a clearing-house for their problems, and to give service in the establishment of new materials centers.

2. Functions of materials centers in teacher- and library-training institutions

- a) To organize and administer a selective but representative working collection of instructional materials as well as reference tools for that institution. These materials should be acquired mainly through purchase, and only the regional centers should solicit review and evaluation copies.
- b) To enable faculty and students to ex-

amine critically representative materials in order to reach better judgments regarding the selection and use of such materials in their work.

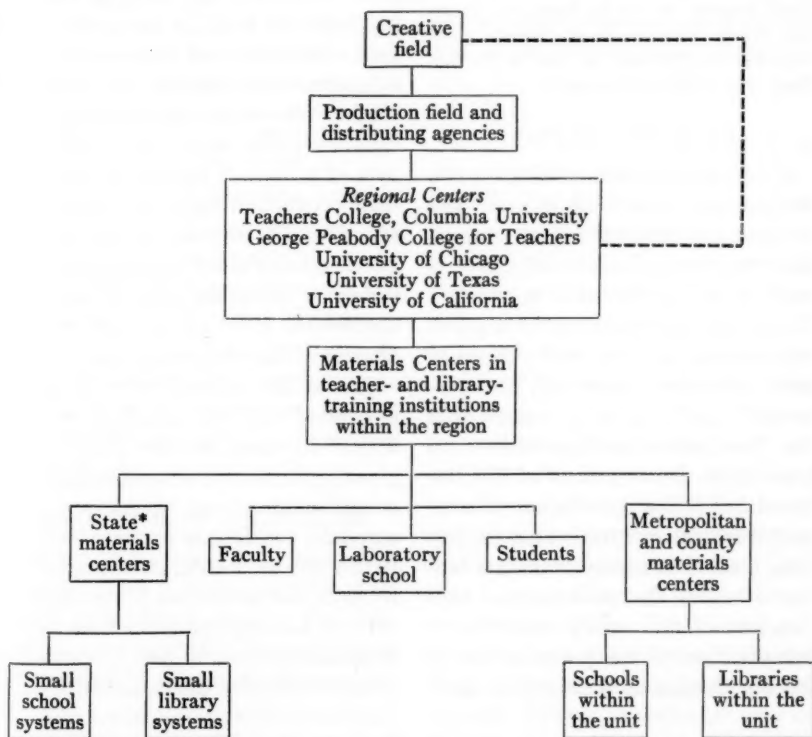
- c) To serve as a laboratory for various activities of "materials" courses and for the school's research program.
- d) To be a materials center for the laboratory school and particularly for students in their practice teaching and library field work.
- e) To demonstrate the effective use of various types of materials in education and child development.

- f) To give consultative service to faculty and students in problems relating to instructional materials.

(The regional materials would serve these functions in relation to its own institution, as well as fulfilling the regional objectives.)

### 3. Functions of state and local materials centers

- a) To organize and administer a selective but adequate and representative working collection of instructional materials as well as reference and selection tools for the areas it serves.



\* The materials centers in the state departments of education would serve the smaller local school systems and libraries throughout the state, exclusive of larger cities and county systems for which separate materials centers may be developed.

FIG. 1.—Chart demonstrating the relationship of regional materials centers to local materials centers and to the production field.

- b) To communicate to its unit of service the results and products of the program of regional materials centers.
- c) To enrich the teaching and library programs within its unit by supplying appropriate materials as needed.
- d) To act as a laboratory for curriculum development and revision. (Here these centers would be supplemented by the resources of their respective regional centers.)
- e) To give consultative service in problems relating to instructional materials.

(Such centers are to be found at Greenville, North Carolina, in the Florida State Department of Education, and in the San Diego County School system.)

#### PROJECTING THE PLAN

If a program approximating the one outlined here were to be initiated and developed, some preliminary over-all planning would be needed. How it could best be effected is a problem that should be considered by a group representing all personnel concerned with instructional materials. That personnel is probably to be found within the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association. A committee in this organization has already been created to survey materials centers. I believe that an important concomitant of this survey would be an investigation of the potentialities of some such plan as is submitted here,

the problems involved, the logical steps in its development, and the key points to be designated as regional centers. Since any educational program of this type needs adequate financing, it might be wise to solicit the interest and aid of some educational foundation. Recommendations that funds be appropriated for initiating an experimental program within one region could then be made.

As one phase of the plan, its purpose, structure, and benefits should be clearly set forth for the production field, and the aid and resources of that field should be enlisted. The regional centers would serve them in a research capacity, as far as consistent with the over-all scheme of service. In this way their production could be made more effective. The evaluation by the regional centers of all instructional materials as published should have an appreciable effect on the caliber and amount of material being issued.

Just as the regional center becomes integrated with the selective centers within its area, so the various regional centers must establish a plan of co-operation among themselves and maintain continuous communication. In this way an interrelated program of research and service can be developed, wherein needless duplication of effort is eliminated and the best interests of modern education can be served.

## HOW HIGH IS A HIGH SCHOOL?<sup>1</sup>

REGINA HEAVEY

*Overbrook High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania*



### INCREASED ENROLMENT

THAT the high-school population has increased tremendously during the last forty years is evident from the following quotation:

Less than forty years ago only four out of every one hundred boys and girls entering school were graduated from high school. In 1939, that number had risen to thirty-five and has remained approximately at that level during the last eight years.<sup>2</sup>

This estimate is, of course, intended to present a national picture. For some communities 35 per cent may be an overstatement; for others, an understatement. The point of interest, however, is that there has been an increment, wholly disproportionate to the increase in population, in the number of boys and girls attending high school.

### IMPLICATIONS OF THE INCREASE

What has brought about this change? What is the significance of it? What effect has it had on the high-school boys and girls themselves, on the caliber of education they are re-

ceiving, on the morale of their teachers, and on the taxpayers' estimate of the high-school graduate? What changes has it brought about, and will it continue to bring about, in secondary education as a whole and as an integral part of our national educational system? In short, how high is a high school?

I wish I knew the answers to all these questions or that I were certain that the few I have to offer are the right ones. My opinions have no authority other than the experience and thinking of one classroom teacher. True, during the seventeen years I have taught in high school, I have observed the change that has taken place and, like some of you, have in the past rebelled against it. I have experienced the frustration of refusing to believe that the "old order changeth" and have learned the hard way that it must "yield place to new" and that I must adapt myself and my teaching to it. While I cannot claim to have the zeal of a convert, I hope I have put aside the cynicism of the agnostic. At least, I no longer refer to a pupil as being or not being "high-school material." I am willing to take him where I find him, difficult though the search may be.

<sup>1</sup> From a paper presented at the Annual Institute on Reading at Temple University on January 31, 1949.

<sup>2</sup> "Report of the Committee on Pupil Placement," p. 3. Philadelphia: School District of Philadelphia, 1947.

*The influence of outside factors.*—The increase in enrolment has been brought about by factors that are, to a great extent, outside the province of the school. State laws have extended the compulsory school age. The apprentice system for young people of high-school age has been virtually abandoned. Technological advancement has decreased the need for unskilled workers. Finally, social legislation and progressive social changes have raised the economic level of the average American family and made it less necessary for teen-agers to seek gainful employment. Even without the impetus of a changing philosophy of education, there would have been, by virtue of these factors, a considerable increment in the total school population. Had it not been for the leadership of educators, however, the high school would not have acquired the lion's share of this increase.

*Influence of a more democratic concept of education.*—To what, then, is the high school indebted for this lion's share? Primarily, it seems to me, to a broadening concept of education in a democracy. The substitution of automatic promotion, chronological grouping, or an estimate of effort and growth in relation to ability for rigid standards of achievement is but secondary. Each of these factors is the logical consequence, not infrequently misused and misunderstood, of putting into practice the modern ideal of high-school education for all American youth.

It is, indeed, democratic to have all

the children of all the people in our high schools. It is democratic to give every child the maximum number of years of education to which his state laws entitle him. Too frequently, however, equality of opportunity has been misinterpreted to mean the same opportunity for all, even though it be too easy for some and too difficult for others. Democracy in education has been misinterpreted to mean a leveling process in which the dull child is brought *up* to mediocrity and the bright child brought *down* to it.

Many modern educators, in their concern that no child experience failure or be stigmatized by, or even made fully aware of, the limitations of his native ability, have created an un-American, undemocratic dream world in our schools. They have sponsored the same reward or absence of reward for excellence of achievement as for indifferent performance or nonperformance. In so doing, they have denied the American youth his fundamental right to competition and have dulled his initiative and enterprise. They have done all this primarily because their approach to providing education for all American youth has been sentimental instead of scientific.

On the other hand, in almost entirely abandoning the old pattern of promotion by meeting rigid standards and its corollary of failure, modern educators have eliminated the retention of slow, overaged pupils in the primary grades. No one who ever taught under the old system can re-



gret the thinking that took the fifteen- and sixteen-year-olds out of the grade-school classrooms.

For the first six months after I had been graduated from the Philadelphia Normal School, I taught Grade IV. I can still remember the four maladjusted adolescents that terrorized my class and me. They were the Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse incarnate. Certainly, no high-school teacher, however critical he may be of existing conditions, wants to turn back the clock to such a time.

Much of the high-school teacher's difficulty lies in the sentimentality with which the problems of slow learners or pupils of limited ability have been met. Educators have been eloquent in their exposition of the psychological and social evils of failure and of the purpose of education to provide not only knowledge but also essential social habits and adjustment. Yet they have often been confused, impractical, and even mute, about what should be done with slow or limited learners in a high school. School systems, equipped with departments for curriculum planning, have side-stepped the necessity to analyze the needs of these pupils and to provide adequately for them. In this way the pupils that were once the stepchildren of the elementary school have become the stepchildren of the high school. A new kind of underprivilege has been created for them—one that is less vicious than the old but more dishonest because it pretends to solve a problem that was formerly ignored.

If it is the democratic right of pupils of limited ability to be in a high school, it is also their democratic right to be provided with curriculums and means of instruction. First, it must be straightforwardly admitted that these pupils exist and that they represent a comparatively new, and almost wholly unsolved, problem in the high school. Then an effort, based on scientific analysis, must be made to provide them with a type of education in which they, too, may gain competence and success. Until both these steps are taken, these pupils will remain what they now are—a hindrance to the average and better-than-average pupils and a source of irritation and frustration to experienced high-school teachers.

#### NEED FOR SYNTHESIS OF OLD AND NEW PHILOSOPHIES

The sanest attitude to take toward the plight of the high schools of today is that education in the secondary school is in a transition period. This attitude makes it possible to accept the ideal of education for all American youth. It makes it possible, also, to dissociate the ideal from the evils that have resulted from its having been implemented before adequate plans for its practical application had been devised. In this present period of confusion, let us grasp the broad humanity in the new philosophy of secondary education but at the same time make every effort to retain the academic integrity of the old. Let us grant that all boys and girls are en-

titled to the social and developmental experience of attending high school. Let us see to it, however, that that experience challenges the brightest and the dullest. Let us ask ourselves, "Why cannot young people of all abilities be given meaningful work they can do and be permitted, as they will in the business world, to compete and to co-operate with their peers in intelligence and ability?"

Certainly an expanding concept of education in a democracy includes high-school education, not for the privileged few alone, but for all young persons who are not actually feeble-minded. It should be pointed out, however, that, by and large, the privileged class of the old system was not a social or an economic caste but that it was privileged by virtue of its intelligence. Under the old system only those pupils with the mental capacity to do "standard" work survived. Harsh as it was, such a system of education played an integral part in transmitting our national culture from one generation to the next. It also helped young people of intelligence, genius, and leadership to know "the best that has been said and thought in the world."

#### IMPLICATIONS OF SYNTHESIS

If the best of the new system is to be utilized and the good things in the old retained, then the pupils, the teachers, the publishers of textbooks, and the taxpayers must be made fully aware of what a modern high school offers by way of educational experi-

ence. Everyone must clearly understand how high a high school is, or is not.

*Implications for the pupils.*—Our easiest task—once we face it—is with the boys and girls themselves. Sentimental indoctrination has led them to confuse effort and achievement. It has hidden from them the knowledge that the world needs and has use for workers of all abilities and that it compensates only for efficiency and production. Yet they have not been entirely fooled. Some core of common sense has persisted. We have not deceived the ones who would not have been self-deceived anyway. Often, after I have been working with a corrective English and reading class for a while, I ask each pupil privately at which grade he began to have trouble with his reading and his school work. Usually the answer varies from Grade III to V. The grade often coincides with, and is rarely more than a year off from, the reading score determined by testing. In each successive year, however, the pupil has been expected to grasp new skills when he has not had time to master the old ones.

*Implications for the teachers.*—In the past, high-school teachers received nearly all their pupils with the spade work done on them. The high-school Freshmen of twenty, or even fifteen, years ago were the apt learners and, possibly, the apt readers. They represented the fit who had got over the hurdles of "standards." In a sense these pupils made high school the green pasture of our free educational

system and spoiled the high-school teacher. Because he presented knowledge to receptive minds, he came to think subject matter more important than method. His failures, those pupils who lacked the skills or intelligence to keep up with his pace, he wrote off as not being "high-school material."

The greatest obstacle that the high-school teacher of today must overcome is his subject-mindedness and all the evils attending it. The subject-minded teacher, rich in the information of his specialization, usually feels at his best with brighter pupils and has a sense of being wasted on the duller ones. He feels that he is doing most when he can put his knowledge to greatest use.

In criticizing the subject-minded teacher, however, I do not mean to attack or belittle the kind of scholarship that can be acquired only by intensive specialization. Every great teacher since Socrates, nevertheless, has been concerned, not only with the impact of knowledge upon the minds and personalities of his pupils, but also with the vitality and ingenuity of his methods of instruction. Every great teacher, too, has known that part of the fun of teaching lies in getting something taught, whether the pupil be bright or dull. Though it is pleasanter and more stimulating to teach the bright students, the teacher's moments of success with pupils of limited ability bring a greater sense of satisfaction and accomplishment, despite the exhaustion and the tedium that accompany the task of teaching them.

No one has really taught who has never said to himself, "Well, I got that into their heads at last! For today, anyway!"

In his re-education, the high-school teacher must get away, not only from his subject-mindedness, but from his academic-mindedness. He must overcome his when-I-went-to-school complex and fight against the impulse to boast about the number of majors carried, the hours spent in study, and the petty honors won. When the high-school teacher faces the fact that the average pupil of today is not the average pupil of twenty years ago, he must realize, too, that the compulsory education laws have brought into his classroom many boys and girls of limited background.

These pupils do not have access to books or good magazines in their homes. They do not hear literate English spoken there. Often everything in their environment is against their setting a value on what the high school has to offer. Though they come from the same economic strata as the children of immigrants of twenty years ago, they lack the burning desire for knowledge and the driving ambition of the former pupils. The high-school teacher of today must realize, furthermore, that all his pupils—and that includes the brightest too—are distracted by the moving picture and the radio. He must understand, however, that these two great supplements to instruction are more vivid, more stimulating, more normal means of learning than the printed word.

To meet the wide range of abilities, the high-school teacher needs, what he rarely has, a knowledge of methods and techniques habitually employed by teachers in Grades I-VI. He must recognize, for instance, the simple fact that, if some of his pupils cannot solve the problems in bookkeeping, it may be because they have not the reading skills to interpret the problems. He must realize, also, that it is his responsibility to teach them how to read the problems comprehendingly before he tries to teach them how to obtain the solutions. Until such an idea is as readily acceptable to him as it is to the third- or fourth-grade teacher of arithmetic, he will be unsuccessful in his teaching.

Yet, by and large, high-school teachers do not have the kind of training to make such teaching possible. Nothing in their certification as secondary-school teachers has required them to have it. Even today, schools of education do not include reading as a required course for secondary-school training; nor are courses that teach differentiated methods of instruction required. The young practice teachers who come to our high school are astonished to find that the reading skills of our pupils range from primer to college level. Unfortunately, these teachers are no better equipped to differentiate their instruction to meet the needs of all these pupils than are the teachers whom they will replace in a few years.

One of the greatest aids to the high-school teacher in adjusting himself to

the new order is the progress that has been made in recent years in the study of reading. When he can accept the premise that the teaching of reading has become a part of the high-school teacher's technique, he has taken his first step in progressive instruction. The second step is to realize that all his pupils, except perhaps the genius fringe, can be taught to read better than they do. The third step is the recognition that certain subjects, such as geometry, physics, and bookkeeping, because of the mental processes involved in them, require training for specific skills. The mere addition of reading to the high-school curriculum, however, will not suffice. Whatever instruction in the subject is introduced should be purposeful and should evolve from an analysis of the mental processes necessary for mastery of specific subjects.

*Implications regarding educational publishers.*—Administrators and teachers should solicit the assistance of educational publishers in planning for the various types of books needed to meet varied abilities. Usually, publishers prepare their titles from the information they receive from representatives of the schools. Nevertheless, it is a common practice for members of the teaching profession to be harshly critical of the publishers' offerings. If the publishers are not supplying the high schools with the kinds of books needed, it is because the high-school personnel has been confused about its needs or inarticulate in making them clear.

Frequently, teachers and administrators have been content to tell publishers' representatives that one offering was too difficult or that another no longer had appeal. As a result of this type of criticism, there has been, especially in English, a leveling-down of the literary merit of the titles offered. In catering to mediocrity, the high schools have discouraged the continued publication of many textbooks well within the intellectual grasp of the average and better-than-average pupils. Each year brings the deletion of more and more familiar classics from publishers' listings. Such a deletion removes them also from the cultural tradition of our nation and raises a question: "Are the high schools meeting the challenge of total education, or are they merely making a difficult task a little easier?"

*Implications regarding the taxpayers.*

—To implement further the concept of education for all American youth, the administrators of our school systems should take the taxpayers into their confidence. By means of press and radio, they should explain clearly and honestly, in language which the average citizen can understand, what the schools are trying to do. They should so present to the public their objectives and the problems involved in realizing them that there will be less dissatisfaction with, and criticism of, the high-school graduate. Under the assumption that only the initiate can understand what is known as a philosophy of education, the schools have too long shrouded themselves in

mystery. They should admit forthrightly that the high-school population has changed. They should make it clear that, because graduates have had widely differentiated instructional experiences, suited to their abilities, different degrees of competence are to be expected of them. Then, the public will, no doubt, stop judging the school's product by its present rigid standards of what a high-school graduate ought to know.

Not until the average citizen is informed and convinced by able educational salesmanship will he provide the money to further the evolution of education for all American youth. It is he, in the last analysis, who must supply the funds for those things so badly needed to make total high-school education possible. He must pay for additional educational research, in-service courses for teachers, extension of the school-work program, the purchase of special equipment and adapted textbooks, and the employment of more adjustment teachers, reading technicians, and psychologists.

In the meantime, the taxpayer should be assured that, if he spends more, he and his children will receive more. How else can he judge what will be done in the schools except by what is being done now? Instead of excusing their shortcomings by lamenting what they lack, high-school administrators and teachers can exercise traditional American ingenuity and resourcefulness. They can adjust their curriculums, their instruction, and their thinking to meet the chal-



lence of a new concept of education in a democracy. If, however, because of present inadequacies, they are content to fail pupils of limited ability or to go to the other extreme and abandon all standards of achievement, they will destroy the confidence of the taxpayer in their integrity. On the other hand, if the high-school administrators and teachers demonstrate that they are making every effort to give all children a valid educational experience, they will lead the average citizen to respect what they are trying to do.

#### THE LAST WORD

In closing, I would like to tell a story that often comes to my mind when I think of the change that has taken place in the high school.

About eighteen years ago, when I was teaching in junior high school,

a new appointee aroused considerable curiosity by her frequent reference to "my husband, the professor." Finally, an inquisitive member of the faculty asked what we all wanted to know, "Where does the professor teach?" The new teacher named a Philadelphia high school that is justly proud of the academic prowess of its students. Her next statement, however, was a little surprising, even eighteen years ago. "He has held the chair of Latin there," she said precisely, "for the last ten years without interruption."

The time when the high-school teacher could do anything whatever for any period of time whatever without interruption is gone. Alas, the chair is gone, too! Today, like his fellows in the elementary grades, the high-school teacher is on his feet, teaching for all he's worth.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GORDON N. MACKENZIE AND CLIFFORD BEBELL  
*Teachers College, Columbia University*



REFERENCES for the period from July 1, 1948, to June 30, 1949, are similar in coverage to those of recent years except that items referring to organization for veterans' education have all but disappeared from the list. References dealing with adult education and school and community have appeared in the literature in increasing number.

### GENERAL

545. BOSSING, NELSON L. *Principles of Secondary Education*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. Pp. xvi+448.  
Treats the present status, history, task, and program of the secondary school, with some consideration of current trends in organization.
546. GOSLIN, WILLARD E. "On These Leadership Must Take a Stand," *Educational Leadership*, VI (February, 1949), 258-63.  
Discusses three issues: development of the educational program; improved practices (promotion, college requirements, time organization); and financial support.
547. GRIM, PAUL, and ANDERSON, VERNON. "Is the American High School Serving

Today's Youth?" *Educational Leadership*, VI (March, 1949), 338-49.

Presents responses of youth to questions on what they want from high school and the ways school helps them most and least. Also cites opinions of educators on what are the most important problems, the barriers to their solution, and possible solutions.

548. NICHOLS, FREDERICK G. "Co-operation vs. Competition in Business Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (November, 1948), 62-68.  
Pleads for greater co-operation between departments in the high school to the point of breaking down departmental lines, with examples drawn from business education.
549. PINCKNEY, PAUL W. "Organization for Improved Learning," *Educational Leadership*, VI (March, 1949), 385-91.  
Discusses implications for organization of a program of common learnings, the need for extensive pupil-teacher contacts, and the need for flexibility, with specific suggestions as to organizational dangers.
550. ROBINSON, JOHN T., and BRADY, ELIZABETH H. "The School Culture and Educational Planning," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXI (May, 1948), 499-507.

Considers school as a cultural whole, with patterns of importance, rules of behavior, and ways of working, many of which differ from their surface appearance.

551. RUSSELL, WILLIAM F. "Philosophical Bases of Organization and Operation of American Schools," *Teachers College Record*, L (January and March, 1949), 221-31, 386-95.

The first part of a two-part article discusses the influence of American ideals on our school organization. The second part traces the development of modern thinking about educational psychology, along with its implications for school organization.

552. STERNIG, JOHN. "The All-Year Program," *School Executive*, LXVIII (April, 1949), 66-67.

Describes the benefits of this plan, as it is practiced at Glencoe, Illinois.

553. WILLEY, GILBERT S. "Organizational Blocks to Creative Leadership," *Educational Leadership*, VI (February, 1949), 276-79.

Discusses five kinds of blocks: boards of education, administration "from the top down"; specialized supervision, centralization of school systems, and teachers' handicaps.

#### JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

554. FENSCH, EDWIN A. "The First Junior High School?" *School and Society*, LXVIII (August 28, 1948), 136-37.

Describes the program of the junior high school at Mansfield, Ohio, in 1879, and states the case for its being the first junior high school in the United States.

555. HOWELL, CLARENCE E. "Junior High: How Valid Are Its Original Aims?" *Clearing House*, XXIII (October, 1948), 75-78.

Indicates responses made by administrators to a questionnaire asking them to rate the validity of forty-five objectives of the junior high school.

#### JUNIOR COLLEGE<sup>1</sup>

556. BOGUE, JESSE P. (editor). *American Junior Colleges*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948 (second edition). Pp. x+538.

Presents a directory of American junior colleges, which considers in its first part the development of junior colleges, their present status, the trend of the junior-college movement, and types of junior colleges.

557. DAVIS, ALVA R. "The Place of the Community College in a State Educational System," *Educational Record*, XXX (January, 1949), 79-92.

Describes the educational system of California and discusses the role of the community college, both vocational and academic.

558. FREDENBURGH, F. A. "The Experimental Role of the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (November, 1948), 151-55.

Reports the advances of junior colleges in such areas as general education, semiprofessional vocational training to meet community-employment needs, and training for followship.

559. HILL, MERTON E. "The Place of the Junior College," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIV (January, 1949), 15-20.

Gives an account of the junior-college movement and an analysis of its present function in American education.

560. JUNIOR-COLLEGE COMMITTEE OF THE CURRICULUM COMMITTEE OF THE ILLINOIS SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATION. "The Role of the Public Junior College in Illinois," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (January, 1949), 5-35.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 615 (Bogue) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1948, number of the *School Review*.

Reports a rather complete discussion of the junior-college movement, its educational justification, and its program, with special reference to the need for a system of public junior colleges in Illinois.

561. KOOS, LEONARD V. "A Community-College Plan for Pennsylvania," *School Review*, LVII (April, May-June, 1949), 202-16, 286-94.

This two-part article reports on a state-wide inquiry into the need for junior colleges in Pennsylvania, their location, their relationship to lower schools, their costs, and agencies for their control.

562. PETERSON, BASIL H., and THORNTON, JAMES W., JR. "Building a Functional Program for a Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (November, 1948), 119-24.

Describes the organizational practices used in opening a new junior college—Orange Coast College, Costa Mesa, California.

563. RABE, W. F. "The Functions of the Independent Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (November, 1948), 142-44.

States the peculiar advantages offered by a small independent junior college.

564. SAYLOR, JOHN GALEN, and OTHERS. *Junior College Studies: Legislation, Finance, and Development of Public Junior Colleges*. Contributions to Education, No. XXVI. Lincoln, Nebraska: University Extension Division, University of Nebraska, 1949. Pp. 124.

Presents studies on the statutory basis of public junior colleges, their financing, and their development in Nebraska.

#### ARTICULATION<sup>2</sup>

565. BUTLER, MARIAN C., and HAMMOCK, ROBERT C. "Continuity of Learning through Co-operative Planning," *Edu-*

<sup>2</sup> See also Item 35 (Bryan) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1949, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

*cational Leadership*, VI (March, 1949), 391-95.

Discusses instances of poor vertical articulation and proposes overcoming such situations through techniques now in use at Waco, Texas, for administrative conferences and teacher planning.

#### RURAL EDUCATION

566. HAYES, WILL. "No More Grapes of Wrath," *NEA Journal*, XXXVII (October, 1948), 426-27.

Presents a description of the Vineland School, located in a rural community, with a program designed to meet needs of students and community.

#### VOCATIONAL EDUCATION<sup>3</sup>

567. BRYANT, IRA B. "Vocational Education in Negro High Schools in Texas," *Journal of Negro Education*, XVIII (Winter, 1949), 9-15.

Surveys the present status of Negro vocational education in Texas and makes recommendations for its improvement.

568. CONNER, S. GRANT. "A Sound Professional Point of View toward Vocational Education," *School Executive*, LXVIII (October, 1948), 41-46.

Discusses the present status of the purposes and practices of vocational-education programs in terms of a variety of topics.

569. GETMAN, ARTHUR K. "A Decalogue for Vocational Industrial Education," *Education*, LXIX (April, 1949), 463-68.

Offers ten guides for the development and implementation of a vocational industrial education program.

570. KNIGHT, E. B. "Vocational Training for Migrating Youth," *Occupations*, XXVII (December, 1948), 184-86.

Cites data on education and vocations of migrant youths, with recommendations for educational organization.

<sup>3</sup> See also Item 250 (Keller) and Item 253 (Mays) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1949, number of the *School Review*.

571. MURBACH, NELSON J. "Area Vocational Schools and Post High School Vocational Education," *Education*, LXIX (April, 1949), 495-501.

Discusses four types of area vocational schools, emphasizing the need for such schools at the high-school level and giving many examples.

#### ADULT EDUCATION

572. BEAMER, ALAN L. "Alexandria's Adult Educational Program," *Virginia Journal of Education*, XLII (October, 1948), 13, 40.

Presents the steps which were involved in organizing an adult-education program in Alexandria, Virginia.

573. CALIVER, AMBROSE. "Project for Adult Education of Negroes," *School Life*, XXXI (November, 1948), 4-5.

Describes progress to date of the Project for Adult Education of Negroes sponsored by the Office of Education.

574. ELY, MARY L. (editor). *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States*. New York: Institute of Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948. Pp. xii+556.

Presents a complete survey of adult education in the United States, including data on organization and a directory of agencies carrying on adult-education programs.

575. FITZWATER, C. O. "Some Guides to a Wider Use of Rural Schools for Adult-Education Purposes," *Adult Education Bulletin*, XIII (October, 1948), 212-16.

Considers nine principles to guide the rural school's approach to adult education and gives some practices of sixteen New York central rural schools.

576. GLASHEEN, GEORGE L., and LUND, JOHN. "How the School Reaches Out," *School Life*, XXXI (March, 1949, Supplement), 11.

Suggests ways to organize a program of community learning about atomic energy. Such a program is also applicable to other problems.

577. HAMLIN, H. M. "Adult Education in the Rural Schools of the Middle West," *Adult Education Bulletin*, XII (August, 1948), 169-72.

Discusses the importance of rural adult education; the needs, developments, and problems of such a program; and recommends a community school as the best solution.

578. KEMPFFER, HOMER. "Adult Education Is Growing," *School and Society*, LXVIII (September 11, 1948), 171-72.

Gives data on the growth of adult education in several states and discusses reasons for, and implications of, this growth.

579. KEMPFFER, HOMER. "Educating Our Young Adults after School and College," *School Life*, XXXI (March, 1949), 2-3, 14.

Stresses need for furnishing educational facilities for young adults and cites various ways in which the problem has been approached.

580. KOCH, RAYMOND H. "Adult Education in Hershey, Pennsylvania," *American School Board Journal*, CXVIII (February, 1949), 52

Describes this town's program of adult education through evening school, in-service training, and adult day school.

581. LASALLE, LOY B. "Educating the Adult," *Michigan Education Journal*, XXVI (December, 1948), 281-83.

Discusses the educational needs of adults and offers specific suggestions on how to organize an adult-education program to meet these needs.

582. MCCLUSKY, HOWARD Y. "Dissemination of Child Development Knowledge through a Program of Adult Education



and Community Action," *Child Development*, XIX (March-June, 1948), 40-51.

Presents (1) data on distribution and education of adult population of the United States; (2) an overview of channels and programs of adult education; and (3) a discussion of problems of putting an adult-education program into action at the community level.

583. PETERSON, DOROTHY R. "Adult Education in Evening High Schools," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XXIII (February, 1949), 436-37.

Discusses changes in the adult-education program of Harlem Evening High School, New York City.

584. SHOEMAKER, BYRL R. "A Community Organizes To Meet Its Adult Education Needs," *Ohio Schools*, XXVII (January, 1949), 8-9, 32-33.

Tells how in Findlay, Ohio, the school and the community joined in planning and organizing an adult-education program.

585. SMITH, BRADFORD. "In the Town Meeting Tradition," *Adult Education Journal*, VIII (January, 1949), 18-20.

Describes the state-wide organization in Vermont for furthering adult education through forums; considers the problem of financing them; and tells about their operation.

#### SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

586. CARROLL, MARY MARGARET (editor). "Planning and the Schools," *High School Journal*, XXXII (March-April, 1949), 49-96.

The entire issue is devoted to a discussion of results of a questionnaire on educational planning activities sent to many localities. Included is a description of programs in Greensboro, North Carolina; Philadelphia; Detroit; and Valley Forge, Tennessee. A bibliography is appended.

587. CLARK, LOIS. "A Central School Serves Its Community," *NEA Journal*, XXXVII (May, 1948), 276-77.

Describes ways in which Spencer Central School, New York, serves its community through the use of its facilities and discusses the furnishing of services.

588. HAYES, WILLIAM E. "Community School and Its 2-Way Bridges," *Clearing House*, XXIII (April, 1949), 457-61.

Traces the growth of the community-school idea toward complete integration of school and community and gives suggestions for furthering this trend.

589. HINCHEY, CLARENCE EDWIN. "The Community-School Partnership," *Education*, LXIX (December, 1948), 216-19.

Outlines a four-step plan whereby a school and community can determine how best to work together on education, with illustrations drawn from Schenectady, New York.

590. KINDRED, LESLIE W. "Lay Advisory Commission Puts into Effect the Partnership between School and Community," *Nation's Schools*, XLIII (March, 1949), 43-44.

Discusses purposes, practices, and appraisal of the use of the lay advisory commission to interpret the schools to the public.

591. McDONALD, J. W. "Creative Thinking through Group Discussion," *Adult Education Journal*, VIII (January, 1949), 3-8.

Presents a report of a movement started in 1934 in Kansas City, describing the ways in which educators and laymen organized to study human nature and to encourage community-wide co-operation.

592. MURPHY, ROSE M. "New Concepts for Old," *New York State Education*, XXXVI (April, 1949), 545-47, 608.

Gives an extensive list of resource persons, plans, and materials in a community and makes specific suggestions of ways in which school and community can co-operate.

593. NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF PROFESSORS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION. "The Community School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (December, 1948), 107-8.

Presents a list of sixteen descriptive statements of the community school, as compiled by the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration.

594. RICHARDSON, CLEO. "Toward Better Human Relations," *New York State Education*, XXXV (June, 1948), 686-88.

Presents the recommendations and results of a joint lay-educator workshop held in Westchester County, New York, which considered what is being done, what more needs to be done, and what schools and

communities can do together to build better human relations.

595. ROGERS, VIRGIL M. "Community Cooperation in Financing Education," *Educational Leadership*, VI (February, 1949), 282-84.

Cites the steps involved in one community's organization to meet the financial problems of education.

596. WHITEMARSH, FRED M. "Agencies Cooperate in Instruction of Veterans," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, XXI (January, 1949), 157, 163.

Discusses problems and advantages of joint school and community group projects. Gives examples of specific ways in which school and government or business agencies have organized such projects for the education of veterans.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

CHARLES FLINN ARROWOOD, *The Powers of the Crown in Scotland: Being a Translation, with Notes and an Introductory Essay, of George Buchanan's "De Jure regni apud Scotos."* Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press, 1949. Pp. xii+150.

Professor Charles Flinn Arrowood has here added a further star to a pedagogical diadem bedecked already with many historical gems. Pursuing in the British Isles his now standard quest, the history of education, Professor Arrowood comes upon a sixteenth-century work by George Buchanan, an eminent Scottish educator and statesman. He proceeds to translate it (from Latin) and to provide it with an excellent historical and dialectical introduction. The work is in dialogue form with a title—*The Powers of the Crown in Scotland*—which only partly reveals the richness and the modern relevancy of its content.

The theme has to do with what we called the "legitimacy" of government. It is a hard-hitting defense of the right of subjects against tyrant kings, and it is a defense made when the defenders were still more or less defenseless. It minces no words to proclaim that men who misuse power themselves become expendable in the game of power, whatever the piety of their pretense or the prowess of their position. Buchanan knew whereof he spoke. Born and educated a Catholic, he had been in serious trouble with the Inquisition before he left the church in patriotic and Protestant devotion to the Crown and Church of Scotland. His patriotism in turn met trial in that his former student, Mary, Queen of Scots, was dismissed from the throne after impetuously and precipitately

marrying the Earl of Bothwell, who was charged with, acquitted of, but still widely believed to be responsible for, the murder of her first husband. Buchanan seeks in this treatise to justify the people of Scotland in ridding themselves of a ruler who had proved unworthy of their trust.

The student of political theory will be reminded of John Locke's *Essay on Civil Government*, written for a similar *ex post facto* reason, i.e., to justify the English people in the so-called bloodless revolution of 1688. What intrigued Professor Arrowood, as a historian, was to come upon one who antedated Locke's defense of democracy more than a century—Buchanan's book was published in 1579, though written a decade earlier; Locke's in 1690—and who had answered Thomas Hobbes's authoritarian arguments more than half a century before they were made.

Professor Arrowood does not claim originality for Buchanan even in his priority, save for a reorientation of old truths. But Buchanan summarized for a live situation what was known and liberally believed, and he shot his summary into the bloodstream of our culture by making it the standard political philosophy for Scottish Presbyterianism and British Puritanism. Buchanan influenced John Milton greatly, laved the shores of Thomas Jefferson's mind, and in fact constituted an early mining of the philosophy fully minted in the American Declaration of Independence and the French Declaration of the Rights of Man. All the familiar arguments are here in Buchanan's dialogue: government by the consent of the governed, a state of nature for perspective, natural law

for reliance, the distinction between rightful authority and sheer political power, positive approval for the riddance of tyrants, softening of scriptural interpretation for tender consciences. All this there is without falling into expediency as the only justification of authority. Buchanan indeed avoided Machiavelli's influence from the past and fore-armed against Hume and the Utilitarians to come. His is a not unhappy mixture of utility with a dash of institutional piety (the "natural" brand underpinning the supernatural). Jefferson reflects the spirit of Buchanan's caution in declaring that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes.

Without going as far as Harold Laski—possibly "the most influential political essay of the sixteenth century"—one can see the importance of this book and be grateful for its felicitous translation. At a season when American schools stand between sacerdotal presumption, reasserting itself, and a growing state intervention, flexing its muscles, it is certainly salutary to find in our cultural history so excellent, indeed so aesthetic, a statement of solid middle ground upon which pedagogical patriotism can rest.

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EDWARD WEEKS, REINHOLD NIEBUHR, GEORGE N. SHUSTER, and SIR RICHARD LIVINGSTONE. *Modern Education and Human Values*. Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation Lecture Series, Vol. II. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1948. Pp. xii+124. \$3.00.

The lectures comprising *Modern Education and Human Values* were sponsored by the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh and were delivered during the school year 1947-48. The first series was presented during 1946-47 and was attended by intellectual leaders of the western Penn-

sylvania area, many of whom expressed appreciation for the privilege of sharing the stimulation of these arresting discussions.

The contributors to this second series are Edward Weeks, editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*; Reinhold Niebuhr, professor at Union Theological Seminary; George N. Shuster, president of Hunter College; and Sir Richard Livingstone, president of Corpus Christi College, Oxford University. There were five distinct lectures, with Sir Richard presenting the last two.

Edward Weeks, in "Education: The Dream and the Reality," differentiated between the ideals about which we preach so eloquently and the practice that falls far short of our American dream. Weeks feels that we have still to learn how to handle ideas and human personality with the facile touch marking our use of the most complex machinery and that what we lack primarily is ability and efficiency in personal relationships. He employs the term "tug-of-peace" to indicate our failure to apply this same skill in the crucial field of international intercourse.

The content introduced by Reinhold Niebuhr centers in "The Person and the Mind of Man in Modern Education." According to Mr. Niebuhr, the psychological self is the whole of man, of which the mind is the central, integral element. In our understanding of nature and the formidable attempt we are making to overcome obstructions to adjustment, the self is both the knower and the known, which places on our educational program a responsibility hitherto beyond our power to realize. We remain a mystery to ourselves, and we fail to achieve the miracle of grace indispensable to the reduction of our evil nature and the control of our daily behavior. The wisdom most to be cherished is conditioned by humility and derived from the ultimate Self, wherein lies the power to make all things perfect.

George Shuster directs our thinking to the poignant and elusive subject of international understanding. Differences in culture and traditional outlook make it difficult to secure

co-operation among the nations. Education alone can be patient enough to carry out the necessary long-term course of training to fulfil our ideal of unity and friendship. Consciousness of cultural diversities and a resolution to break down the barriers that prevent practical collaboration—herein lies our field of labor and our dedication.

The Shuster lecture was strategic and preparatory. Sir Richard Livingstone followed with a historical and analytical study of English education. He sets forth clearly the tedious processes involved in broadening the British education base and at the same time conserving the superior cultural quality of the old-school instructional customs. A plea is made for greater attention to adult education in an age that seems to have sold its soul to debasing film stories, unworthy fiction, excessive excitement over sports events, and a craving for lotteries and other gambling devices. Our great need, he believes, is to elevate our standard of civilized living by implementing our social and democratic institutions more effectively. As productive accomplishment today is beyond our reach without an intelligent interpretation of the past, just so is our current activity contingent upon our look into the future and our anticipation of this generation of youth's becoming the adult pilots of tomorrow. Sir Richard is objective and specific, revealing a new and improved attitude on the part of scholarly Englishmen toward the universal problem of popular education.

Samuel P. Franklin, dean of the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh, has written an explanatory and factual preface, and Rev. Hugh Thomson Kerr, executive secretary of the Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation, contributed an incisive foreword. This volume will be highly prized, not merely by the patrons and friends of the University of Pittsburgh, but by all who are fortunate enough to have access to it. It is literally a invitation to learning and a supplementary construction stone in the spiritual evolution of the university. We shall look forward expectantly and hopefully to the lectures that

lie ahead and to subsequent publications planned and inspired to keep us informed and intellectually alert.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLAIN

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HAROLD SPEARS, *Some Principles of Teaching*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949. Pp. 148. \$1.25.

Although much has been written in the last twenty years about principles and methods of teaching for the modern school, there is always room for a book that can adequately synthesize the results of research and practice. Harold Spears's most recent book, *Some Principles of Teaching*, attempts to do just this—to review some of the leading principles that have stood out as beacons to teachers and administrators.

The author presents eighty-nine principles or guiding rules for effective teaching. A discussion of its significance and implications follows the statement of each principle. It must be pointed out, however, that Spears does not claim to have originated the rules, merely to have selected them "from the tongues and actions of teachers as they ply their trade day in and day out in classrooms all over America" (p. 2). It is to the author's credit that he does not attempt to present a complete and technical treatment but a summary and working knowledge of necessary rules. He recognizes, too, that the rules are often easier to indorse than they are to use.

For convenience Spears has classified these principles by grouping them under the following areas: "The School's Purposes," "The Learning Process," "Teacher and Classroom," "The Individual Pupil," "Organization and Administration," and "The Curriculum." There is much overlapping among the miscellaneous principles, but this is to be expected since there are many interrelationships in human behavior.

Throughout the book the wide experience



and understanding of the author reveals itself. Particularly forceful is the emphasis placed on the close relation between organization and administration and a curricular program which promotes growth and development of the students. To secure a more functional curriculum, he warns that administration must not be considered an end but a means, that instructional standards are false unless set in accordance with the natures of those to be served. For example, Spears states:

There's little reason to get excited about the divisions we make in our educational ladder from kindergarten through the fourteenth grade. It's not the organization, it's what the teacher does with the group of pupils in front of him at the moment—how he does it, plus what the administrative leadership does to help him do a better job with that group of pupils in front of him—that matters [p. 118].

The use of cartoons to illustrate his points is a favorite device of Mr. Spears, and

twenty-seven cartoons which he has drawn are scattered through this book. Although it may be argued that cartoons interfere with the narrative of a serious work, Spears has employed them sparingly enough to enliven the discussions and to help convey the desired impressions.

The author recommends the book for use by the teacher in training, the experienced teacher in service, and graduate students. The volume can serve as a handbook for faculty meetings, administrative conferences, curriculum workshops, and committee meetings, and for the use of individual teachers. It is written for the elementary-school, high-school, and college teacher alike. In this respect, the author will probably be challenged for his statement: "It is high time that we realized that the true principles of teaching recognize no artificial and man-made distinctions between grade levels" (p. 4).

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ADLER, ALEXANDRA, M.D. *Guiding Human Misfits: A Practical Application of Individual Psychology*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1948 (revised). Pp. 114. \$2.75.

*Better Learning through Current Materials*. Edited by LUCIEN KINNEY and KATHARINE DRESDEN. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1949. Pp. xviii+182. \$3.00.

COLE, LUELLE. *Psychology of Adolescence*. New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1948 (third edition). Pp. xvi+650. \$4.00.

DRAWING DIVISION OF THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR ENGINEERING EDUCATION. *Proceedings of the Summer School for Drawing Teachers, June 18 to 28, 1946*,

Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. Edited by R. P. HOELSCHER and JUSTUS RISING. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xviii+640. \$7.50.

HILTON, ERNEST. *Rural School Management*. New York 16: American Book Co., 1949. Pp. x+278. \$3.25.

JENKINS, GLADYS GARDNER; SCHACTER, HELEN; and BAUER, WILLIAM W., M.D. *These Are Your Children: How They Develop and How To Guide Them*. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1949. Pp. 192. \$3.50.

MEYER, ADOLPH E. *The Development of Education in the Twentieth Century*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949 (second edition). Pp. xviii+610.

PASTORE, NICHOLAS. *The Nature-Nurture Controversy*. New York 27: King's Crown

- Press, Columbia University, 1949. Pp. xvi+214. \$3.25.
- RASMUSSEN, CARRIE. *Speech Methods in the Elementary School*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1949. Pp. x+340. \$3.50.
- SANDS, LESTER B. *An Introduction to Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1949. Pp. xiv+422. \$3.00.
- SCHORLING, RALEIGH. *Student Teaching*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949 (second edition). Pp. xviii+416. \$3.75.
- Studies in Reading*, Vol. I. Publications of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, XXVI. London: University of London Press, Ltd., 1948. Pp. xvi+212.
- SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. *The Dynamics of Parent-Child Relationships*. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. Pp. xiv+198. \$3.50.
- Textbooks in Education*. A Report from the American Textbook Publishers Institute to its membership, its friends, and any others whose interest in the development of the educational system in the United States goes beyond a mere passing fancy. New York 10: American Textbook Publishers Institute, 1949. Pp. xii+140. \$2.00.
- WEITZMAN, ELLIS, and McNAMARA, WALTER J. *Constructing Classroom Examinations: A Guide for Teachers*. Chicago 4: Science Research Associates, 1949. Pp. xvi+154. \$3.00.
- BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS
- BEAL, MERRILL D. *The Story of Man In Yellowstone*. Caldwell, Idaho: Caxton Printers, Ltd., 1949. Pp. 320. \$5.00.
- BOTE, GEORGE S., and LAIRD, DOROTHY STEPHENS. *Roddy the Rat. A Story of the Spread of Typhus Fever and of Ways of Getting Rid of Rats*. Published jointly by the University of Florida Project in Applied Economics, the Florida State Board of Health, and the Florida Tuberculosis and Health Association. Gainesville, Florida: College of Education, University of Florida, 1949 (revised). Pp. 72. \$0.15.
- BRACE, DAVID K. *Health and Physical Education for Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York 13: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1948. Pp. xx+392. \$4.00.
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- DENISON, B. W., and ASSOCIATES. *Alaska Today*. Caldwell, Idaho: Caxton Printers, Ltd., 1949. Pp. xiv+374. \$5.00.
- EDLIN, H. L. *Woodland Crafts in Britain: An Account of the Traditional Uses of Trees and Timbers in the British Countryside*. New York 22: B. T. Batsford Ltd., 1949. Pp. x+182. \$4.50.
- MCKINNEY, FRED. *Psychology of Personal Adjustment: Students' Introduction to Mental Hygiene*. New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949 (second edition). Pp. xii+752. \$6.00.
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*Tests for Smith's "Exploring Biology: Third Edition,"* pp. 32. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1949 (third edition).

SMITH, ROLLAND R., and CLARK, JOHN R. *Modern-School Solid Geometry*. Schorling-Clark-Smith Modern-School Mathematics Series. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1949 (new edition). Pp. viii+256. \$1.76.

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*Salaries of Certificated Employees in California Public Schools, 1948-1949*. Prepared by Bureau of Education Research. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1949. Pp. vi+10.

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*Studies in Higher Education LXIII. Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Guidance Conference Held at Purdue University November 21 and 22, 1947*. Edited by H. H. REMMERS. Lafayette, Indiana: Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University. Pp. 80. \$1.00.

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